DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 072 029 SP 006 122

AUTHOR	Koerner, Thomas F., Ed.; Crawford, Martha A., Ed.
TITLE	Where Will They Find It?
INSTITUTION	National Association of Secondary School Principals, Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	72
NOTE	94p.
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.65 HC-$3.29
DESCRIPTORS	*Administrator Education; Administrator Qualifications; *Inservice Teacher Education; *Preservice Education; *Principals; *Secondary Schools

ABSTRACT

This publication, prepared by the Committee of Professors of Secondary School Administration and Supervision (PSSAS) of the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP), is designed to stimulate discussion and action to improve the preservice and in-service education of secondary school administrators. The articles in this publication outline a program model for principal education. Topics include a) Principal Most Potent Factor in Determining School Excellence; b) Status of Programs for Principals; c) Programs for the Principal: A Survey; d) The Preparation and Development of Secondary School Administrators: A Summary; e) Implementing the Model: An Example; f) Competency Development and University Methodology: A Model and Proposal; g) Performance Objectives for Administrative Internships; h) Simulation: It's the Real Thing; i) A Skill-Strategy Approach to the Principal's Development; and j) Programmed Self-Renewal. (MJM)

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Where Will They Find It?

The Principal's Search

SP 006 124

Where Will They Find It?

The purpose of this booklet, a reprint of a major part of the March, 1972, NASSP BULLETIN, is to stimulate widespread discussions and constructive action to improve the pre-service and in-service education of secondary school administrators in the universities and in the schools. Administrators need more help than they are now receiving to cope with the need for better learning environments for youth.

NASSP's Committee of Professors of Secondary School Administration and Supervision (PSSAS) has studied and discussed this problem at length. The articles contained in this publication outline an ambitious program, as Prof. Charles Wood, committee chairman, points out in the introduction.

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Where Will They Find It?

A program of pre- and in-service education for principals prepared by the Committee of Professors of Secondary School Administration and Supervision (PSSAS) of the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Contents

Where Will They Find It?

1	Introduction	*Charles L. Wood*
3	Principal Most Potent Factor in Determining School Excellence	*J. Lloyd Trump*
10	Status of Programs for Principals	*Neal C. Nickerson*
21	Programs for the Principal: A Survey	*Evelyn B. Martin*
24	The Preparation and Development of Secondary School Administrators: A Summary	*Donald Brandewie* *Thomas Johnson* *J. Lloyd Trump*
42	Implementing the Model: An Example	*Thomas J. Johnson*
53	Competency Development and University Methodology: A Model and Proposal	*Lloyd E. McCleary* *Kenneth E. McIntyre*
69	Performance Objectives for Administrative Internships	*Louis Barrilleaux*
76	Simulation: It's the Real Thing	*Gerald R. Rasmussen* *Larry W. Hughes*
82	A Skill-Strategy Approach to the Principal's Development	*Everett W. Nicholson* *Norbert J. Nelson*
84	Programed Self-Renewal	*Gene Lamb*

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Preface

NASSP has an interest extending over more than a half century in the continuing education of principals, assistant principals, and other secondary school administrators. Continuing education helps the principal to anticipate problems and to work effectively with the staff to develop better teaching and learning environments that are ahead of the times. Schools provide principals with more latitude to improve their schools than many principals use. The goal of continuing education programs is to build upon the competences, determination, and skills that principals possess so that they will be able to improve their school services.

NASSP *Pilot Projects in Continuing Education*

NASSP recently conducted two pilot projects toward this goal. One was two Mid-Year Institutes for Principals. Experienced principals were invited to meet for nearly four weeks *during* the school year to improve their ability to identify problems, analyze potential new school environments, and work with their colleagues to develop better solutions. Lectures were replaced for the most part by independent study and discussion. Final evaluations by the principals themselves called for even fewer lectures. The Danforth and Kettering (IDEA) Foundations helped support these efforts. Evaluative comments such as the following were common: ". . . I have never experienced an educational venture so interesting and beneficial"; ". . . all of excellent quality and I derived a great deal of knowledge from them"; ". . . I returned with many specific ideas that will improve our situation and that can be implemented immediately."

The other pilot project was two conferences held in the summer of 1971. Both had the same theme: "The Leadership Role in Developing a More Humane School for the Middle Years." During the independent study and interaction sessions of these conferences, each principal developed an action program of his

own. Only six presentations were made to the total group, thus allowing time for individual study with a variety of resources like books, films, slides, consultants, and field trips. Follow-up activities are now occurring.

Recently, all principals of NASSP were asked to identify exemplary programs in their schools, unmet needs in their schools, and their personal unmet professional problems. They were also asked what NASSP could for them as principals. Leading all other expressed needs were those concerned with curriculum development, school innovation, and how to work effectively with teachers in bringing about changes. This statement is typical: "I think NASSP should undertake an intensive program of education for principals involving applications of research studies and findings in human relations and sociology to today's high schools."

National Institutes

NASSP is now undertaking a broadly conceived program of National Institutes for Secondary School Administrators (NISSA). Instructors in this program will include specialists from outside the professional field of education as well as the most innovative minds in it. The Institute staff will include specially-employed persons and members of NASSP's staff when appropriate.

The focus of these NASSP National Institutes is to develop awareness and understanding of the issues that confront secondary schools; develop skills and programs to improve schools in the light of those issues; and teach the techniques of self-renewal through a variety of realistic experiences. Some of the Institutes will extend 2½ days, others will be 15 days; most will be 4 to 5 days. Some principals will spend more extended periods of time as "Innovators-in-Residence." Although many of the Institutes will be conducted at university conference centers, others will be held in motels, resort areas, and state parks.

The kind of topics the different length Institutes will cover include:

2½-Day Institutes—The Principal and the Press and Other Mass Media; Techniques for Role Playing and Interaction Analysis; Changing the Report Card System; Coping with Student Unrest: Planning a Mini-Course Program; The Principal's Role in Teacher Negotiations; First Steps in Planning a Research and

Development Program in a School; Organizing a School for Curriculum (Including Co-curriculum) Study; Recent Developments in School Law and Court Decisions; Planning a Public Relations Program for a Specific Goal; plus others.

5-Day Institutes—Desegregating Schools; Creating Open Environments for Teaching and Learning; Development and Quality Control of Learning Packages and Performance Objectives; Individual Scheduling, Including the Teacher-Adviser Role; Continuous Progress, Year-Round Schools; Evaluating Staff Performance; Involving Students, Staff, and Community in Decision Making; Realizing Better Results from Expenditures of School Funds; Developing a Management-by-Objectives System for a Secondary School.

15-Day Institutes—(First Session: 10 days; Second Session: 5-days, with 2 to 3 weeks interim)—Planning the NASSP Model School Concept: "Total Commitment to Total Change"; Mobilizing the School and Community to Plan a New Building or Remodel Existing Plant (Issues, Options, Guidelines, etc.).

Innovator-in-Residence Program—A program wherein principals with considerable experience in educational innovations spend a period of time in another school to help develop similar innovations there. A converse program wherein principals who want to learn how to organize schools for innovation spend a period of time in a school already noted for innovative practices.

Further information about these National Institutes is available from the Director, J. Lloyd Trump, Associate Secretary for Research and Development at NASSP. The Danforth Foundation has provided a grant to help the NASSP launch this program.

Introduction

The Challenge of Developing a Model for Principal Education

CHARLES L. WOOD

No requirements for graduation, voluntary attendance, no study halls, no bells, no schedule, no report cards, and no students assigned to teachers. These may not be characteristic of your high school, but they are more and more commonly characteristic of many schools. As the school scene changes, preparation programs for principals, likewise, must change. The smorgasbord of education programs demands that professors of secondary school administration and supervision design preparation programs for principals with many options.

Such programs must help principals develop the skill and knowledge to deal with accountability, student disruption, student involvement, nongraded schools, learning resource centers, individually prescribed instruction, and differentiated staffing, among others. This issue of the BULLETIN provides the NASSP Committee of Professors of Secondary School Administration and Supervision (PSSAS) an opportunity to tell of its work in designing preparation programs to meet this challenge.

Goals which PSSAS feels already have been accomplished include:

1. a committee within NASSP
2. a conference to develop guidelines for principal preparation programs
3. an opportunity to present our program in the BULLETIN
4. an organizational structure for the annual PSSAS conferences
5. a sharing of ideas for preparing principals at our pre-session meetings
6. a nation-wide survey of professors concerning their preparation programs.

Charles L. Wood is head of the Department of Secondary Education at the University of Akron, O.

Future goals the committee believes to be realistic are:

1. development of a model university pilot program (or programs) for preparing principals that emphasize many options and continuous progress
2. a post-doctoral institute for professors
3. an inservice institute for principals
4. a yearbook by PSSAS concerned with innovative programs of education for secondary school principals
5. a development of simulation materials for the preparation of secondary school principals
6. an exchange program among principals and professors, both nationally and internationally.

Too many professors of education are willing to stick their heads in the sand, accepting the results of sporadic research that seems to indicate the ineffectiveness of all preparation programs. Some have gone so far as to say that principals and other educational leaders would be more effective if they had no prior work experiences in education. Neither of these positions, however, can be accepted by those in the business of preparing principals for secondary schools.

PSSAS takes the position that secondary school principals, as a unique group, need an education different from that preparing other educational leaders, one that emphasizes human relations skills and expertise in instructional leadership. Professors working within PSSAS believe that the primary role of the secondary school principal is that of being an instructional leader of his school. They generally agree that they have the responsibility to develop preparation programs that provide students of administration with many options and the opportunity to progress at individual rates.

The PSSAS Committee is now developing a model for an individualized continuous progress education program. This model begins with selective recruitment and continues after formal university training with inservice education. The traditional college credit concept and certification requirement face complete revision in those universities that wish to inititate such a program. Realizing that university vested interests, traditions, and departmental boundary lines are formidable barriers to change and progress, PSSAS nevertheless accepts the challenge of developing this program model which it feels will increase the relevance and accountability of principal preparation.

Contending that preparation programs for principals usually emphasize educational theory more than the processes of organizing improved teaching and learning environments, the author suggests that universities develop more diverse programs, offering many options.

Principal Most Potent Factor in Determining School Excellence

J. Lloyd Trump

The secondary school principal and assistant principal(s) more than anyone else determine the nature and extent of a school's services. What superintendents and teachers accomplish is restricted or enhanced by what principals do.

Periodically, someone suggests that schools be headed by a committee of teachers, by one elected teacher, or by a business manager. Although some principals are, indeed, ineffective in their primary role of instructional leader, for a number of reasons it would be unwise to abandon the principalship.

Teacher organizations seldom rigorously push for school changes designed to improve the quality of teaching and learning. They concentrate mostly on higher salaries and what they consider to be better working conditions. For example, they urge such changes as fewer hours per week on the school premises, better arrangements for sick leave, pay for inservice training, and smaller classes or a lower teacher-pupil ratio (which does not

J. Lloyd Trump is associate secretary for NASSP research and development and secretary to the PSSAS Committee.

improve learning as measured by conventional cognitive measures).

Superintendents and other central office supervisors may have a beneficial impact on schools, but it is sporadic. The same is true of the efforts of such outside consultants as university professors, state education department personnel, or visiting accreditation teams. The principal, therefore, must bear responsibility for the degree of teaching and learning excellence. No one is in a better position than the principal to influence the quality of the school.

It is true that principals sometimes establish the wrong priorities and become overly concerned with counting money, improving food service, planning bus routes, purchasing supplies, chairing service-club committees, and other auxiliary matters. When that kind of overemphasis occurs, the instructional program suffers, even with an assistant principal in charge, because as head of the school, the principal is placing major emphasis on the wrong things.

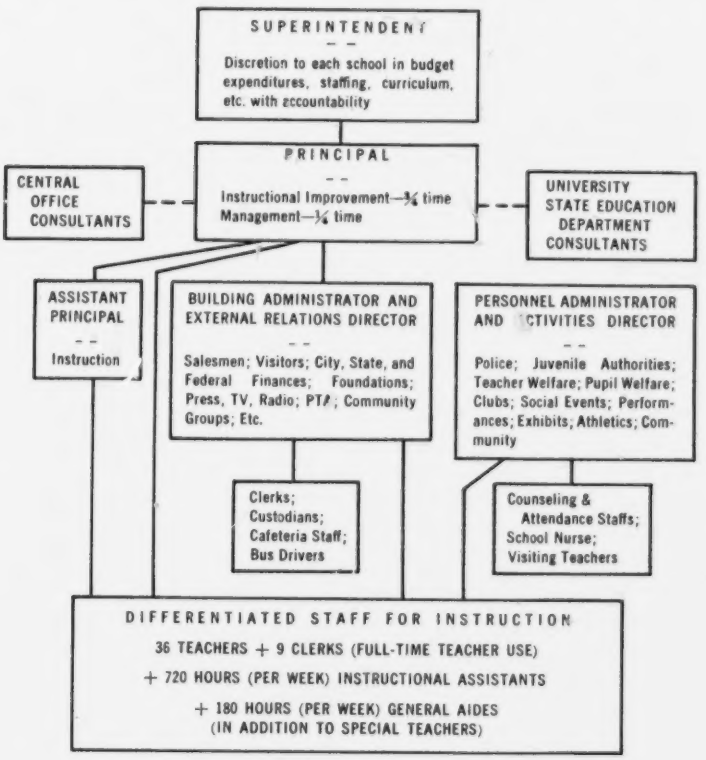
School improvement demands principals with high priorities on improving instruction along with the right techniques for doing it. Also, a school's organization for supervision and management needs to reflect those priorities. The chart on page 5 illustrates the organization we recommend for a school with 1,260 pupils. A smaller school would combine some positions and a larger one would separate them.

The four auxiliary positions—building administrator, external relations director, personnel administrator, and activities director—are handled by two persons in a school with 1,260 pupils or four in a school with 2,000 or more. The preparation programs and qualifications for these positions need to be quite different from what assistant principals and principals require for instructional leadership.[1]

The assistant principal is a key person in improving instruction. He devotes full time to this responsibility, using the same methodology that we urge for principals. The roles of the assistant principal and the principal are the same, except that the latter has added responsibilities for supervising the auxiliary personnel listed in the preceding paragraph. This will require one-fourth of his time and energy. The assistant principal's

[1] For more details, see "Changes Needed for Further Improvement of Secondary Education in the United States," NASSP BULLETIN, Vol. 53, No. 333, January, 1969, pp. 118-26.

STAFFING ARRANGEMENTS TO IMPROVE INSTRUCTION—1260 PUPIL SCHOOL


SUPERINTENDENT
Discretion to each school in budget expenditures, staffing, curriculum, etc. with accountability
PRINCIPAL
Instructional Improvement—¼ time
Management—¼ time
CENTRAL OFFICE CONSULTANTS
UNIVERSITY STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT CONSULTANTS
ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL
Instruction
BUILDING ADMINISTRATOR AND EXTERNAL RELATIONS DIRECTOR
Salesmen; Visitors; City, State, and Federal Finances; Foundations; Press, TV, Radio; PTA; Community Groups; Etc.
PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATOR AND ACTIVITIES DIRECTOR
Police; Juvenile Authorities; Teacher Welfare; Pupil Welfare; Clubs; Social Events; Performances; Exhibits; Athletics; Community
Clerks; Custodians; Cafeteria Staff; Bus Drivers
Counseling & Attendance Staffs; School Nurse; Visiting Teachers
DIFFERENTIATED STAFF FOR INSTRUCTION
36 TEACHERS + 9 CLERKS (FULL-TIME TEACHER USE)
+ 720 HOURS (PER WEEK) INSTRUCTIONAL ASSISTANTS
+ 180 HOURS (PER WEEK) GENERAL AIDES
(IN ADDITION TO SPECIAL TEACHERS)

responsibilities now become quite different from the conventional ones, i.e., discipline, attendance, school locks, and every other miscellaneous item turned over to him. Having the responsibility of improving instruction, the assistant principal complements the principal, thus strengthening the leadership function and potential.

The number of assistant principals needed varies with the size of the school. For example, a school with fewer than 500 students would not require an assistant principal with full-time

responsibility for instruction. For every thousand pupils above 500, or major fraction of that number, however, the school needs a full-time assistant principal working with the principal on instructional improvement.

Currently, preparatory and continuing education programs are influenced too much by the jack-of-all trades philosophy of school leadership, resulting in some persons being overtrained and others lacking the kind of preparation they need. This issue of the BULLETIN aims to stimulate more creative approaches to that preparation. First, however, we must consider the tasks that principals and assistant principals face in improving instruction.

Consistency in Teaching-Learning Strategies

Principals should use the same methods in teaching teachers that they expect teachers to use with pupils. Likewise, professors of education who teach principals need to use similar methods so that there is consistency all along the line. Some extremely old principles of learning should be employed, such as developing readiness, learning by doing, diagnosing and prescribing, relating evaluation to mutually understood purposes, and so on.

The necessary features of the teaching-learning system and process for all groups are numerous and complex. However, in this article I will use only a few examples of the professor's preparation of principals, shown in the middle column; examples of the principal's continuing education of teachers are shown on the right. The left column indicates the system and process.

Summary

Although teacher militancy and student activism are effecting some changes in school programs, the leadership style, the educational know-how, and the supervisory organizations that principals and their assistants develop continue to be the most potent factors in determining school excellence. We define that excellence as the degree to which learning is more individualized, with each pupil developing his own potential to the maximum; teaching is more professionalized, with the use of sounder methodology; curriculum is more relevant, with more options available; and evaluation is based more on performance in relation to clearly understood purposes. The principal has to take the lead in developing different patterns for teaching and learning in the school.

Systems and Processes Used by Professors and Principals

System and Process	Activities: Professor with Principals	Activities: Principal with Teachers
Presentations Introduction of concepts, procedures, materials, etc. to *motivate* further study and work (not to repeat material readily available in independent study and work centers). The goal is to stimulate learners.	Presentation is given sometimes by the professor; at other times by a practicing principal, by a student, or by an audiovisual device.	Presentation is given sometimes by the principal or assistant principal; sometimes by a teacher or student; sometimes by an outside consultant or by an audiovisual device.
Reaction Discussions Organization of small groups of not more than 15 or 20, preferably fewer, to enable learners to react to the presentation or to their study and work, ask questions, and learn better how to interact constructively with each other.	Professor or competent assistant meets with group(s) to answer questions, assess effectiveness of the presentation, and assist groups in interaction processes.	Principal or assistants carry out same activities as listed for professors.
Independent Study/Work Activities Provision of places where learners can read, view, listen, interact—sometimes alone, more often in groups of 2 or more—helping each other with appropriate self-guiding and evaluating materials. Provision of other places where learners can *do* things—devise and conduct experiments, etc. Provision of resources away from campus or school when they are better; competent aides, supervisors, and consultants.	Professor and assistants prepare guidesheets and worksheets to direct learning activities, identifying concepts and skills, with behavioral objectives and criteria measures to permit self-appraisal for diagnosis, prescription, feedback, etc.; provide periodic external evaluation; specify required learnings and suggest creative and/or depth activities; provide for continuous progress learning without minimum time requirements for credit.	Principal or assistants carry out same activities as those listed for professors, with appropriate modifications for levels of teacher competence, interest, and experience.

Systems and Processes Used by Professors and Principals

System and Process	Activities: Professor with Principals	Activities: Principal with Teachers
Curriculum		
Identification of three levels of cognitive skills, and affective learnings: 1. essential for everyone 2. interesting for some 3. necessary for special activities (the learner's unique goals)	Professors and assistants develop and clearly differentiate the three levels; prepare motivational presentations to introduce the purposes, possibilities, and alternatives in all three levels.	Principal and assistants follow same activities as listed for professors, recognizing present variations in teacher competencies and readiness.
Evaluation		
1. Evaluation of individual learners: (a) according to what each knows and does; (b) according to performances on recognized examinations. Recording and evaluating with emphasis on affective domain the special projects of each student. 2. Evaluation of the total system's productivity, using criteria measures based on clearly stated performance goals.	Professors and assistants spend much time developing techniques, actively involving the learners, and using the results for further diagnosis and change.	Principal and assistants use time with emphasis same as listed for professors.

Since the usual pre-service education of principals emphasizes theories of education more than the processes of organizing improved teaching and learning environments, the nature of the continuing education of principals needs to vary markedly from typical programs of the past.

The Association, through its conventions, conferences, and publications, has conducted programs of continuing education. A significant special project was a six-year program called "The NASSP Administrative Internship in Secondary School Improvement."[2] A total of 443 men and women spent a year each in schools learning how to improve instruction with the help of university professors, principals, and the NASSP staff.

Recently, NASSP announced a forthcoming program for in-service education: the National Institutes for Secondary School Administrators. Innovators from outside the professional field of education as well as the most innovative minds in it will staff this new program.

But universities also must develop more diverse programs with many options. This issue of the BULLETIN proposes a number of alternatives.

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[2] *Experience in Leadership* (Washington, D.C.: The National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1970), 55 pp.

Claiming that there's an aura of dissatisfaction with the present pre- and inservice programs for principals, the writer reports his findings about existing programs and suggested improvements.

Status of Programs for Principals

NEAL C. NICKERSON

ARE the programs relevant, effective, practical, and contemporary? On what philosophy are they based? Are they broad or narrow, flexible or rigid, pedantic or real? In short how are our institutions of higher learning doing their job of high school principal preparation? Also what attempts are they making, through inservice efforts, to aid the principal now on the firing line?

The NASSP Committee of Professors of Secondary School Administration and Supervision (PSSAS) became concerned enough about the problem to initiate some status research, first of all to find out what is happening currently in college programs. The PSSAS asked the University of Minnesota's Division of Educational Administration to find out what all colleges and universities having graduate departments of educational administration are doing. By means of a questionnaire, we obtained information on current programs as well as suggested program improvements.

Neal C. Nickerson is associate professor of educational administration at the University of Minnesota, St. Paul.

Tabulation of Responses to Questionnaire on Principalship Preparation

The questionnaire concerned five interest areas.

I. The first section of the questionnaire deals with certain particulars of professors' perceptions of the secondary school principal and some broad guidelines for his pre-service preparation program. Modal responses indicate that professors perceive the principal spending the greatest share of his on-the-job time on improvement of instruction; working *directly* with teachers in conceptualizing, planning, and implementing instructional change; using teachers and students as resources for ideas on instructional program development; encouraging evaluation and criticism; delegating some supervision of instruction to department chairmen and subject matter experts; delegating routine building management details to administrative assistants; and taking part in the teacher-school board negotiation process, though not as a partisan of either side.

Preparation should include up-to-date knowledge of curriculum developments and instructional technology, thorough acquaintance with effects of the out-of-school socioeconomic milieu of the child, and human-awareness or sensitivity training. His preparation should be specialized and different from that of researchers and other administrators.

II. The responses to the second questionnaire section outline in general terms the course requirement patterns in current principal preparation programs and suggest tendencies toward desired modifications of these patterns in building an ideal program. Wide variety in elective combinations possible within and between fields of study listed made tabulation difficult. Responses are reported only in terms of the mode for ease of comparison.

Generally, responses indicate that the balance between subject fields reported in current programs should remain unchanged. A few changes, however, are indicated as desirable by the response pattern: preparation in industrial relations would be required at the 6th year and doctoral levels; some work in the humanities, political science, and business administration should be added at the masters level, and the foreign language requirement should be dropped from the doctoral program.

Narrative comments from respondents reflect considerable interest in loosening the institutionally-stipulated structure of the course programs, especially at the 6th year and doctoral levels, with programs tailored instead to the strengths, weaknesses, and interests of the individual students. Competencies rather than credit hours would be the preferred measure of adequacy of preparation.

III. Section three is concerned with the internship and clinical experience. Responses reflect established and preferred use of these experiences in principal training programs.

While only six states require internships and only four require other clinical experiences for principal certification, both show high acceptance as potential certification requirements.

Modal responses indicate that a one-school-year internship should be required late in the program for the 6th year degree (or certificate) and that course credit should be awarded for it.

Responses also suggest that clinical/field experience other than the internship should be required at the master's level.

IV. Section four reports the number of responding professors who use the listed instructional methods and materials, and their evaluations of the effectiveness of these methods and materials as they use them or have observed them used. Items modally rated "quite effective" include small group cooperative projects, reality-based situation-reaction materials, live guest resource persons from the field, independently-pursued projects, field trips, readings and discussion on current education events, role playing, post-tests over course content following teaching-learning experiences, conference with individual students, and simulation. No items are modally rated as "very effective."

V. Section five serves to present an overview of present practices. It also reveals tendencies toward change in recruitment practices and screening criteria for principal preparation program applicants.

Modal responses indicate a need for placing *greater* importance on the following criteria: exhibits charismatic personality, communicates a sense of social mission, displays social sensitivity, shows commitment to educational and social reform, shows willingness to take risks and tolerate ambiguity and stress, has had work experience outside of education, has had strong academic background in technical managerial skills.

A tendency is also indicated toward placing *less* importance on standardized IQ test scores.

Except where otherwise indicated, the summary tables below report total number of responses to each possible choice for each item. In many cases, respondents completed only parts of the questionnaire, so total responses to any given item may not equal the N (207).

Tabulated Data from the Questionnaire

I. *Professors' Perceptions.* Professors were asked to indicate agreement or disagreement with the following statements:

Responses					
Strongly disagree	Disagree	No opinion	Agree	Strongly agree	
10	73	4	83•	37	A preparation program for secondary school principals should be specialized and substantially different from preparation programs for educational researchers, superintendents, and elementary principals.
6	32	5	98•	66	The secondary school principal should teach teachers how to conceptualize, plan, and implement instructional change.
3	27	5	64	108•	The secondary school principal should spend the greatest share of his on-the-job time working with teachers on the improvement of the instructional program.
6	32	23	98•	48	The student preparing to be a secondary school principal should engage in sensitivity training or a similar human-awareness conditioning program.
128•	66	3	7	3	The secondary school principal cannot be an educational change agent because he cannot be a subject matter expert in all fields.
2	1	1	61	142•	It is essential that the secondary school principal be well acquainted with the effects on children of the socioeconomic milieu in which they spend their out-of-school time.

• Mode

Responses					
Strongly disagree	Disagree	No opinion	Agree	Strongly agree	
0	4	5	112•	86	The principal should consider students a viable source of ideas for changing the instructional program.
2	3	7	84	111•	Office tasks such as bus scheduling, student discipline, building scheduling, and extracurricular activity organization should be handled on a routine basis by assistants to the principal, with accountability to the principal.
62	77•	27	35	6	The principal should be actively engaged in negotiations between the board of education and the teachers, and should be on the side of the teachers.
56	99•	20	17	15	The principal should be actively involved on the side of the board of education in negotiations between the board and the teachers.
58	74•	19	42	14	The principal should not become involved in negotiations between the teachers and the board of education.
1	2	4	81	119•	The principal should initiate regular contacts with groups of students to frankly assess the quality and relevance of the educational opportunity being provided by the school.
6	22	8	78	93•	A major part of the principal's role should be his active interaction with community groups, interpreting the school's program to them and soliciting input from them.

• Mode

Responses					
Strongly disagree	Disagree	No opinion	Agree	Strongly agree	
0	1	3	107•	96	The principal should delegate some supervision of teachers to department chairmen or subject matter consultants.
100•	90	5	8	4	The principal should consider himself the primary authority in the building on subject matter and teaching methods.
97•	83	9	11	7	The principal should consider himself primarily a facilities manager.
2	11	20	118•	56	Principals should regularly be evaluated by teachers in their building.
0	0	5	49	153•	The principal should consider the teachers a viable source of ideas for changes in the instructional program.
1	9	4	107•	86	The principal should consider the students a viable source of ideas for changing policies and operating routines of the school other than those directly related to the instructional program.
6	8	7	60	126•	It is essential that the principal be well-versed and up-to-date in curriculum developments and instructional technology.

• Mode

II. *Program of Preparation.* Professors were asked to indicate in the left column the number of credits required in each field in their present preparation program for secondary school principals. If they felt that a different distribution of requirements would be better, they were asked to indicate the preferred distribution in the right column.

Modal responses are reported in the following table. Quarter credits, where stipulated, were converted to semester credit equivalents.

Code: 1: 0 credits, 2: 1-6 credits, 3: 7-12 credits
4: 13-24 credits, 5: 25 or more credits

Modal Responses: Number of semester credits presently required				Number of semester credits for an ideal program			Modal Responses
M.A.	6th Year Degree	Doctorate		M.A.	6th Year Degree	Doctorate	
3	4	4	Educational Administration	3	4	4	
2	2	2	History and Philosophy of Ed.	2	2	2	
2	2	2	Educational Psychology	2	2	2	
2	2	2	Sociology	2	2	2	
2	2	2	Curriculum and Instruction	2	2	2	
1	1	1	Industrial Relations	1	2	2	
1	2	2	Humanities	2	2	2	
1	2	2	Political Science	2	2	2	
1	2	2	Business Administration	2	2	2	
1	1	2	Foreign Language	1	1	1	
2	2	2	Statistics	2	2	2	

State certification for the secondary school principalship demands which degree as a minimum requirement?

B.A. 4 states M.A. 39 states 6th Year Degree 4 states Doctorate 0

What minimum degree, in your judgment, should be required for secondary school principalship certification?

B.A. 2 M.A. 71 6th Year Degree 106 Doctorate 1

III. A. *Internship in Educational Administration.*

Is an internship required for state certification as a secondary school principal?

Yes 6 states No 41 states

Should an internship be required for state certification as a secondary school principal?

Yes 151 No 44

Check degrees for which internship is required at your school:

B.A. 16 M.A. 34 6th Year Degree 52 Doctorate 21

Check degrees for which internship *should* be required:

B.A. 18 M.A. 83 6th Year Degree 88 Doctorate 51

Is course *credit* awarded for the internship?

Yes 131 No 18

Should course credit be awarded for the internship?
Yes 162 No 15

Length of time spent in internship		Preferred length of time spent in internship
26	One quarter	12
54	One semester	30
54	One school year	80

At what point in the preparation program is the internship served?
Early 17 Middle 37 Late 81
At what point *should* the internship be served?
Early 21 Middle 60 Late 81
What type of experiences should the student take part in as part of his internship?

III. B. *Clinical Experience.*
Some institutions require clinical or field experience different from an internship.
Check the degrees at your school for which clinical or field experience is required:
B.A. 11 M.A. 27 6th Year Degree 24 Doctorate 10
Check the degrees for which clinical or field experiences *should* be required:
B.A. 17 M.A. 53 6th Year Degree 41 Doctorate 33
Is this clinical or field work required for state certification as a principal?
Yes 4 states No 43 states
Should this clinical or field work be required for state certification as a principal?
Yes 72 No 13

IV. *Teaching Methods and Materials.* In the set of columns at the left, professors were asked to indicate whether they use, in courses they teach, the techniques and materials listed. In the right hand columns, they were asked to rate the effectiveness of the techniques and materials. As indicated by different totals, more professors responded to the second part of the question than the first.

1—Not familiar with item, 2—Not effective, 3—Somewhat effective
4—Quite effective, 5—Very effective.

Do you use this material or technique?			Effectiveness Rating				
Yes (N = 164)	No (N = 192)		1	2	3	4	5
•162	2	Small group interaction in class	5	0	19	•88	80
•153	11	Small group cooperative projects	11	1	59	•88	33
•141	23	Reality-based situation-reaction materials	23	1	27	•75	66
11	•153	Management games (computerized)	•168	2	14	3	5
74	•90	Management games (non-computerized)	•94	3	39	38	18
•159	5	Professorial lecture	5	13	•121	46	7
•162	2	Student report, symposium, debate	2	14	•79	78	19
•160	4	Live guest resource person from field	4	2	27	•105	56
•110	54	Resource people via telephone, video tape, audio tape, film, etc.	54	6	•75	45	12
46	•118	Packaged learning units	•132	4	32	19	5
•150	14	Independently-pursued research projects	17	4	54	•78	39
•129	35	Field trips	35	4	33	•78	42
•153	11	Textbook readings and discussion	4	11	•114	55	8
•152	12	Readings and discussion on current education events	4	10	52	•89	37
•130	34	Role playing	27	3	49	•88	25
20	•144	Programmed texts	•147	12	23	7	3
8	•156	Programmed teaching machines	•170	8	13	0	1
•97	67	Team teaching with other faculty members	•72	4	32	61	23
•93	71	Vicarious experience and exposure to world via films, television or other media	•75	4	47	59	7
52	•112	Pre-test over course content	•120	7	27	28	10
•132	32	Post-test over course content following teaching-learning experiences	35	10	59	•70	77
•149	15	Conferences with individual students	16	1	18	•80	77
•116	48	Simulation	52	1	20	•78	41

• Mode

V. *Recruitment and Admission Criteria.* Professors were asked to indicate in the column at the left below the importance ascribed to each of the listed personal characteristics in applicants to their institution's principal preparation program as it now affects the applicant's acceptance into the program. If they felt that any item should carry a different weight of importance in selecting students than it now does, they were asked to indicate the weight they preferred in the columns at the right of the items.

Recruitment and Admission Criteria

Present level of importance						Preferred level of importance				
No opinion 1	Not important 2	Somewhat important 3	Quite important 4	Very important 5		No opinion 1	Not important 2	Somewhat important 3	Quite important 4	Very important 5
19	40	•72	52	8	Exhibits a charismatic personality	27	17	66	•67	14
17	31	•67	58	18	Communicates a sense of social mission	15	18	53	•64	41
14	28	36	•68	45	Displays social sensitivity	12	1	13	72	•93
11	14	68	•70	28	Displays high degree of intelligence on standardized tests	10	4	•98	58	21
18	36	42	•57	38	Shows commitment to educational and social reform	12	6	37	63	•73
26	51	•63	40	11	Shows willingness to take risks	18	12	41	•71	49
24	40	•49	47	31	Shows ability to tolerate ambiguity and stress	15	4	25	59	•88
22	20	42	•62	45	Exhibits persistence in task completion	15	3	18	•78	77
12	19	34	47	•79	Has had experience as classroom teacher	16	18	44	44	•69
19	•101	51	17	3	Has had work experience outside of education	21	45	•71	45	9
12	27	•60	51	41	Achieved undergraduate grade average of "B" or better	18	19	•94	45	15
15	61	•79	29	7	Has had broad liberal arts academic background	19	20	•77	54	21
25	•93	59	11	3	Has had strong academic background in technical managerial skills	21	52	•75	36	7
29	•73	46	34	9	Has had experience as innovative principal	21	•49	46	43	32

• Mode

Summary

Professors in secondary school principalship pre-service and inservice preparation programs state:

1. The principal should spend the greatest part of his on-the-job time in the improvement of instruction.

2. The principal must work directly with teachers and students as resources for improvement ideas.

3. The principal must delegate routine matters plus supervisory activities to assistant principals, department chairmen, and administrative assistants.

4. The principal's preparation program must include human awareness training and be different from that of researchers and other administrators.

5. The principal's preparation program must be wide and varied. It should include work in industrial relations, the humanities, political science, and business administration. Foreign language requirements are not necessary.

6. The principal's preparation program must be made more flexible—tailored to the individual's unique strengths, weaknesses, and interests.

7. The principal's competencies rather than credit hours are the preferred measure of adequacy of preparation.

8. The administrative internship is a highly desirable part of the preparation program and should be required.

9. Clinical experiences other than the internship should be required at the M.A. level.

10. Simulation, small group projects, role playing, using resource people from the field, and field trips should be used as instructional techniques.

11. In recruitment of students, for graduate education programs, less importance should be put on standardized tests.

12. Colleges and universities must expand their inservice programs.

Finally, college professors *do* see a need to change their efforts. Less rigid specific course requirements and expansion into other areas will improve the quality of secondary school principal pre-service and inservice programs in educational administration.

A modest survey to determine the nature of existing programs to prepare school principals bears out the author's thesis that these programs should be more responsive to the needs of principals who are enmeshed in today's societal crises.

Programs for the Principal

A Survey

EVELYN B. MARTIN

STUDENT activism, teacher militancy, racial conflict, lay criticism, and funding cutbacks are realities of daily, if not hourly, concern for the high school principal. To deal with them, principals need new strategies.

To test the assumption that universities are not responding to principals' inservice needs, I used a survey to learn the nature of current programs providing either traditional or innovative opportunities for continuing professional development.

The Survey Procedure

During the fall of 1971, 50 universities on the mailing list of the University Council for Educational Administration were sent an open-ended statement: "We offer the following opportunities for the professional growth of secondary school administrators:

Title of Program or Activity
Duration
Credit Hours
Major Content
Source of Financial Support

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Each institution was asked to describe its programs and attach evaluation instruments.

Of the 26 (51%) respondents, five elected to provide narrative descriptions of their activities varying from a single paragraph to a full page in length. Seven sent announcements or bulletins.

Replies from five universities indicated that they provided no form of inservice offerings. Representative comments were: "No one is admitted for brush-ups." "We offer traditional degree programs only."

Over 50 percent of the respondents, however, did indicate the existence of workshops or institutes. Conferences, retreats, quarterly dinners, externships, and mini-courses were also listed.

Most of the programs operate during the summer sessions and range from one week to three weeks in length. Universities which elect to provide a planned sequence of activities for the entire school year conduct sessions ranging from dining time to one-half-day, one-day, or two-day time blocks over a period of up to 16 weeks. They are most often campus based, but a few indicated regional activities within the state with the location dictated by enrollment.

Forty percent of the universities do not offer academic credit for inservice programs. Others provide participants a choice of earning from one to three graduate credit hours. One university has built in a nine-hour block of such credit for the administrator who is progressing in a planned program toward a doctorate.

Sixty-one percent of the universities indicated that the programs and activities are determined by the participants. One university indicated the use of a professional advisory committee composed of practicing school administrators whose function is to recommend the types of needed inservice improvement experiences. A list of some of the items listed by the universities under "content" is as follows:

- decision making
- teacher evaluation
- negotiations
- concepts of labor relations in the public school setting
- instructional role of the principal
- team teaching
- individualized instruction
- educational systems and systems analysis
- leadership skills
- development and up-dating of staff
- group dynamics
- computer technology

- clinical supervision
- management problems and skills
- due process
- communication skills
- changing role of the principal
- the metropolitan school principal

Although a specific item to solicit information on instructional methods was not a part of the survey instrument, 20 percent of the respondents provided this detail. Aside from the lecture and discussion instructional methods, role-playing, simulation, in-basketry, and gaming ranked high on the list of methods.

The most frequently mentioned means of financial support was payments by the participants themselves. The next frequently mentioned method indicated that school districts bore the costs. Other sources of financial support were: university summer budgets, extension or continuing education budgets, and federal funds.

Conclusions

Data drawn from this survey do not support the idea that universities are unresponsive to the professional growth needs of secondary school principals. Variations of programs, content, duration of activities, and instructional methods do exist. These differences might well reflect the varying needs according to geographic location, population density, and social-cultural factors.

There is probably no justifiable reason for the university to allow its service role to be fulfilled solely through the consultative services of faculty. The needs of high school principals deserve a planned and academically respectable program that is assured input from the extensive personnel and physical resources of the institution.

Implications

This brief survey fulfilled its modest exploratory function, and some interesting implications did emerge. They substantiate the need for a further look. Inservice learnings are necessary if the principal is to cope with the magnitude and intensity of the problems with which he is beset, confounded, and bewildered.

This article has two thrusts—the first, to present the model and guidelines developed at the Purdue NASSP-PSSAS Conference, and the second, to summarize reactions from the field to the proposed model.

The Preparation and Development of Secondary School Administrators

A Summary

DONALD BRANDEWIE
THOMAS JOHNSON
J. LLOYD TRUMP

NASSP's Committee of Professors of Secondary School Administrators and Supervision (PSSAS) met in April, 1971, at Purdue University with about 20 invited principals and professors to brainstorm ways to improve the preparation and development of secondary school administrators.

The guidelines and models developed, along with subsequent reactions reported at drive-in conferences in the fall and in letters, are described in this article.

Both the Danforth Foundation and NASSP provided grants for partial expenses to make these meetings possible. Neither organization, however, wishes to develop a single proposal for preparing secondary school administrators. They recognize that

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constructive action is crucial and encourage continuing discussions and actions.

Part A. Some Recommendations from the Purdue Conference

I. *Program Assumptions, Structure, and Requirements*

Programs to prepare educational leaders, conference participants felt, suffer from inflexibility on the one hand and a lack of design, logic, and integrity on the other. Systematic approaches are needed, with programs shaped toward a design, reflecting the university's total philosophy and not the disparate parts of the institution's aggregate offerings.

Fundamental to any program in educational administration are the following assumptions:

1. School administrators are accountable for educational leadership.
2. The processes of educational leadership may be defined as behavioral outcomes.
3. The development of educational leadership requires a continuous progress program.
   a. The first step is to identify and incorporate the existing competencies of a trainee upon entry.
   b. Further progress is determined by the achievement of competencies rather than time requirements.
4. A leadership training program is based on function rather than form or position; however, the two must be interrelated.
5. The leadership training program should be based on relatively open admissions.

These assumptions lead to the following recommendations:

1. A significant portion of the early phases of the program should consist of a large block of time in which students should assume responsibility to plan, organize, execute, and evaluate 80 to 90 percent (certainly a major proportion) of their own learning activities; the faculty's role should be devoted largely to non-traditional, experience-broadening, innovative activities designed to inspire the group to go beyond custom, tradition, and orthodoxy.

2. Smaller units of time should also be set aside to encourage discriminating and purposeful choices from a broad array of short-term offerings focusing on specific topics.
3. Efforts should be made to find better ways to obtain the contributions of instructors from other disciplines in the university, of practicing school administrators, and of people in community organizations and agencies whose work interfaces with that of schools.
4. Work in the schools and community should be an integral part of several phases of the program. Most of the specialized skills that are uniquely appropriate for specific positions should be acquired in the schools rather than in the university setting.
5. Insofar as a student's desires and potentialities may be ascertained early in the program, different curricula should be followed for the development of researchers, developers, administrators, clinicians, and synthesizers. Within each of these specializations, further individualization should be built into each student's program.
6. Residency requirements should be reviewed in terms of individual situations in order to provide options.
7. Informal activities that draw faculty members, students, and others together should be an integral part of the program.

II. *Recruitment—Selection*

Heterogeneity of Educational Leaders. American schools aim to foster diversity within a unified society. Their leadership, as well as their educational programs, should reflect and encourage the ethnic and cultural heterogeneity of the community and the student population.

Communication, understanding, and trust may be improved between schools and communities when local citizens see that individuals like themselves, however identified and projected, are incorporated into the leadership function of the school. The involvement and an array of persons with differing social perspectives enhances leadership, policies, and decisions. Thus, for the schools as social institutions and for discourse within training programs, diversity of social backgrounds is desirable.

At the present time, both applicants and graduates of educational leadership programs tend to be former teachers. Having experienced many similar activities during employment and training, they have developed a common set of professional norms. While these professional norms are beneficial in general, they are often dysfunctional in promoting heterogeneity among positional leaders.

Most, but not all, participants at the Purdue University conference believed that educational leadership programs should actively seek candidates outside the classroom and the career ladder within the profession. Higher educational institutions should not wait for candidates to walk through the door; they must initiate active recruitment and identify new talent pools. The varied backgrounds of candidates can aid the training programs and the schools.

Admission Procedures. The processes of selection and admission to a program of graduate studies must rely heavily upon the observation of the candidate's behavior in various settings. Detailed empirical descriptions and evaluative statements of endorsement should be sought. Although high quality performance on such indicators as scores on standardized paper-pencil tests and undergraduate grade-point average is useful for screening and is indeed related to administrative performance, discrimination on other variables during the selection process is necessary. Experience and advancement patterns, social concern and commitment, leadership performance and style, flexibility-adaptability, emotional-affective qualities, value priorities, and aspirations are used. The weight given to such factors and the systematic nature with which they are considered will vary greatly among institutions. Many persons would accord much higher priority to these last-named factors than most institutions now give.

All administrative training institutions need to review and make explicit their recruitment, admission, and selection procedures. Information-gathering procedures should be defined operationally; criteria, indicators, and standards should be stated as explicitly as possible. Explication of the selection process would not only aid rational decision making within individual institutions, but would also facilitate research among institutions concerning the effectiveness of their selection process.

III. *The Model—A Systematic Approach*

The proposed Model (Figure 1) illustrates a systematic way to look at systematic program planning. It should be viewed as three-dimensional with no finite limitations. Each dimension contains certain aspects of a preparatory program. While the Model does not attempt to set criteria, it does provide a means for their establishment.

Dimension of Height. Within this dimension are found content, processes, and behavior. Four major areas of content have been identified, but not all content must be restricted to these four:

I. Educational Program Development
II. Personal Development
III. School-Community Relations
IV. School Management

Within each area of content, four processes have also been identified:

A. Diagnostic
B. Prescriptive
C. Implementive
D. Evaluative

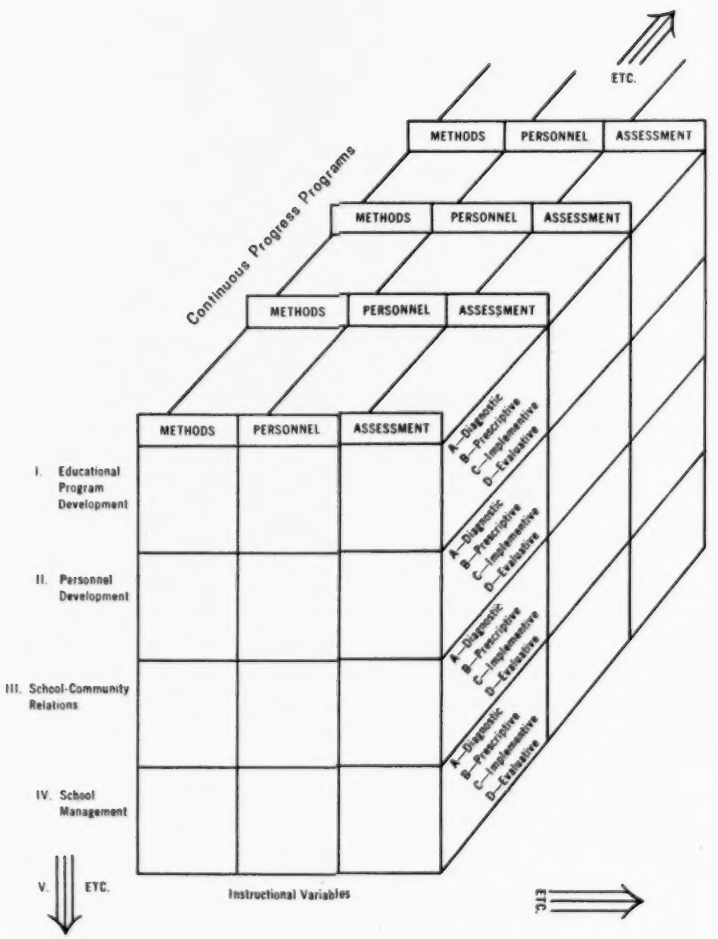
Lastly, within each process, behaviors may be identified and classified according to domains:

1. Knowledge
2. Comprehension
3. Application
4. Analysis
5. Synthesis
6. Evaluation
7. Affective
8. Skills

Dimension of Width. This dimension deals with instructional variables—the methods, personnel, and assessment—involved in the development of an educational leadership program. Although examples of methods, personnel, and assessment are not intended to be prescriptive, 16 examples of methods are suggested:

Lecture
Discussion
Case
Scenario
Simulation
Independent Reading
Tutorial
Student Research
Team Research
Laboratory Approach
Clinical Studies
Computer-assisted Instruction
Learning Activity Packages
Internship
Human-relations Training
Gaming

Figure 1


ETC.
METHODS
PERSONNEL
ASSESSMENT
Continuous Progress Programs
A—Diagnostic
B—Prescriptive
C—Implementative
D—Evaluative
I. Educational Program Development
II. Personnel Development
III. School-Community Relations
IV. School Management
V.
ETC.
Instructional Variables
ETC.

Different kinds of people should be involved in preparatory programs, for example:

Professors of Educational Administration	Professional Organizations
Professors of Other Departments	School District Representatives
	Students

The following types of assessment are identified:

C: Conceptual	PJ: Performance, on-the-job
A: Applicational	S: Self-evaluation
PS: Performance, Simulation	

Dimension of Depth. Through this dimension, the Model suggests a method of considering continuous progress of both preparatory and continuing educational programs. Implied are greater degrees of sophistication, more complex behavioral skills and performance, and areas of specialization determined by the candidate's goals. No attempt is made to specify the continuity to any program since each institution has that responsibility.

IV. *Adapting Behavioral Objectives to the Model*

The Model assumes that behavioral outcomes can be identified and that progress in the development of leadership skills is determined by the achievement of competencies rather than by time requirements. Regardless of the way in which an objective has been stated, there is no way of determining whether or not it has been achieved until there is an observable changed behavior on the part of the learner.

Behavioral objectives may be written in the cognitive and psychomotor domains so that they restrict the learner to a narrow range of responses. However, with certain goals (especially in the affective domain), the desired outcome depends upon the specific situation, and thus may vary. Open-ended behavioral objectives may be necessary in the affective domain. See Figure 2.

V. *A Procedure for Developing Program Objectives*

Another purpose of the conference was to show approaches to relating educational programs to the Model. These areas, illustra-

Figure 2

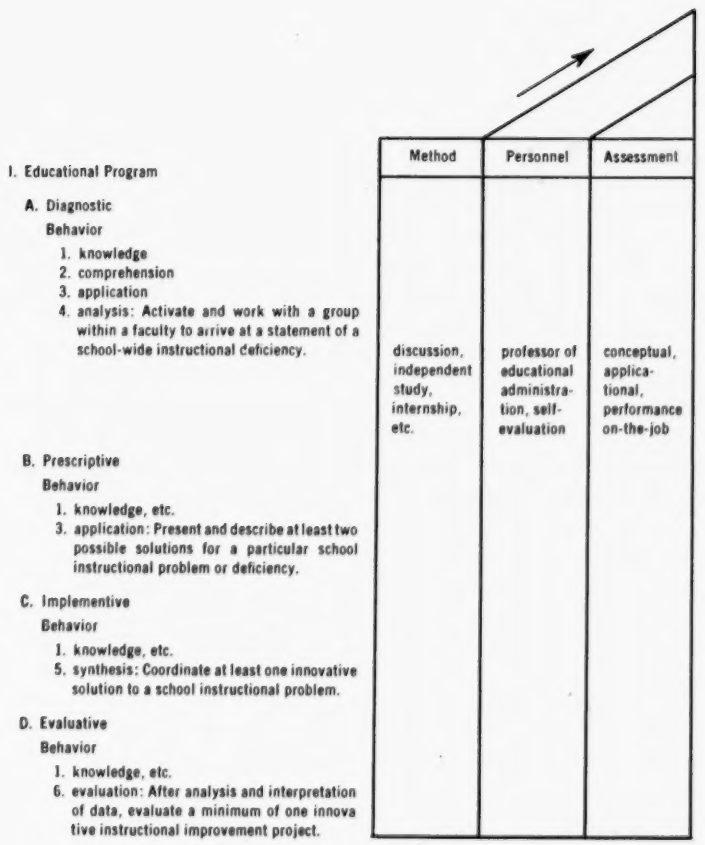

I. Educational Program
A. Diagnostic
Behavior
1. knowledge
2. comprehension
3. application
4. analysis: Activate and work with a group within a faculty to arrive at a statement of a school-wide instructional deficiency.
B. Prescriptive
Behavior
1. knowledge, etc.
3. application: Present and describe at least two possible solutions for a particular school instructional problem or deficiency.
C. Implementive
Behavior
1. knowledge, etc.
5. synthesis: Coordinate at least one innovative solution to a school instructional problem.
D. Evaluative
Behavior
1. knowledge, etc.
6. evaluation: After analysis and interpretation of data, evaluate a minimum of one innova tive instructional improvement project.
Method
Personnel
Assessment
discussion, independent study, internship, etc.
professor of educational administration, self-evaluation
conceptual, applica-tional, performance on-the-job

Figure 2 illustrates how a program, categorized by content, processes, behavior, method, personnel and assessment, might look when applied to the Model. No attempt has been made to prescribe the in-depth position of these activities. Roman numerals indicate the major content area and the capital letters identify the different processes. Behaviors are preceded by numbers describing the hierarchies in the taxonomies of Bloom and Krathwahl.

tive rather than all-inclusive, are listed alphabetically rather than in a priority order:

1. Change, innovation, diffusion
2. Curriculum and instruction
3. Effective communication
4. Finance
5. Human relations
6. Learning environment
7. Negotiations
8. Organization and development
9. Political science
10. Problem solving
11. Research and evaluation
12. School law
13. Social awareness
14. Systems analysis for educational planning

Figure 3 illustrates program development for the Model by showing several teaching-learning objectives for each category, with parallel behavior expressed in the cognitive, skill, and affective domains where possible. In addition, it shows two levels of "application behaviors" of these learnings that the student would be expected to perform upon completion of his pre-service program. The "initiatory level" is the level at which the administrator begins when he first moves into a principalship or assistant principalship, after completing a preparation program. The "effective level" behaviors are developed by combining his preparation with day-to-day service.

Figure 4 illustrates one topic, Learning Environment, by expanding the treatment of each teaching objective and goal application behavior. The cognitive, skill, and affective teaching objectives, with associated teaching strategies and evaluative techniques, refer to the pre-service preparation programs of educational leaders. The "application" behaviors, methods, and evaluative techniques are those prescribed for in-service or self-renewal programs in which the administrator is involved.

VI. *Placement and Follow-up*

Moving from an orientation of placement as a necessary service, universities should involve individual professors to provide counseling, contact districts, and encourage students to seek specific positions, and the like. As informal communications increase, they should lead to formalized activities of university placement offices.

Follow-up is a logical extension of placement. Systematic assessment of the student's performance on the job is used to support

Figure 3

WORKSHEET FOR DEVELOPING OBJECTIVES

Subject Area: *Learning Environment*

Teaching Objectives			Application of Learnings	
Cognitive Domain	Skill Domain	Affective Domain	Initiatory Level	Effective Level
1. Specifies alternative modes for attaining a "secondary education" and flexibility of movements between modes.	Creates sample schedule with alternative modes. Makes provision for student changes from mode to mode as required. Specifies staff competencies to meet needs of multi-mode program.	Shows commitment to principle of individualized programming of students' educational experiences.	Adds new department courses and mini-courses based on flexible needs of student and society.	Organizes and reorganizes school with new sets and sub-sets as individual and society needs change.
2. Specifies activities that focus on student learning rather than on "teaching."	Creates in-service program plan designed to motivate teachers to function as learning facilitators rather than as assignment-makers.	Shows commitment to principle of teacher interacting with student as learning facilitator.	Encourages teachers to work with relevant concepts rather than with memorized facts.	All teachers have individualized continuous progress curriculum based on relevant concepts and skills.

Figure 4

WORKSHEET FOR IDENTIFYING METHODS AND EVALUATION

Subject Area: *Learning Environment*

	Method	Evaluation
Objective: Cognitive Domain (From Figure 3)		
1. Specifies alternative modes for attaining a "secondary education" and flexibility of movement between modes.	Reading Discussion Simulation	Observation Testing
Objective: Skill Domain		
Creates schedule with alternative modes. Allows student changes from schedule as required. Selects staff competent to meet changing needs.	Internship Field Experience	Observation
Objective: Affective Domain		
Shows commitment to principle of individualized programming of students' educational experience.	Group dynamics Contact with various kinds of groups	Observation
Application: Initiatory Level		
Adds new department courses and mini-courses based on flexible need of student and society.	Internship Field experiences	Observation
Application: Effective Level		
Organizes and reorganizes school with new sets and subsets as individual and societal needs change.	Placement	Observation during post-employment visit

Figure 4 (*continued*)

WORKSHEET FOR IDENTIFYING METHODS AND EVALUATION

Subject Area: *Learning Environment*

		Method	Evaluation
	Objective: Cognitive Domain (From Figure 3)		
2.	Specifies activities that focus on student learning rather than on "teaching."	Reading Group dynamics Field experience	Test Observation
	Objective: Skill Domain		
	Creates in-service program plan designed to motivate teachers to function as learning facilitators rather than assignment-makers.	Internship	Observation
	Objective: Affective Domain		
	Shows commitment to principle of teacher interacting with student as learning facilitator.	Reaction patterns to group dynamics	Observation Rating scales
	Application: Initiatory Level	Internship	Observation
	Encourages teachers to work with relevant concepts rather than memorized lists of facts and data.		
	Application: Effective Level		
	Organizes all school learning activities on individualized continuous progress curriculum based on relevant concepts and skills.	Intra-visitation	Observation during post-employment visit

him and to aid his movement to more appropriate positions. The department acquires, processes, and uses information about both student and position. In periods of student shortages, the attention is often upon the student with the intention of maximizing the attainment of his career goals in the shortest possible time. During periods of job shortages the focus of attention often is upon the jobs available and the best means of presenting possible candidates.

In both placement and follow-up, knowledge about the student and about the job are basic ingredients. How such information is processed and for what purposes become the bases of operational guidelines:

1. Departments of educational administration to examine the policy issues relating to both placement and follow-up in order to arrive at definite operational procedures.
2. These specific operational procedures should be communicated to staff and students with systematic feedback to clarify misunderstandings.
3. Data relative to student placement and performance need to be collected and fed back to staff in an organized fashion to provide guidelines for further program development.
4. Resources of the department should be available to each student for career planning and later development as a career administrator.
5. Follow-up should be directed toward moving the administrator through planned career choices as well as providing feedback concerning the program's effectiveness at all levels.
6. Evaluation of behaviorally-stated goals should show whether the students and staff understand the career possibilities, career routes, competence requirements and qualifications for successful performance on the job. Students should know how to obtain valid information concerning their own capability and progress in the needed competencies.

VII. *Implications for Further Development*

The primary purpose of the conference was to develop guidelines for preparatory programs for educational leadership. Lack of time prohibited the accomplishment of several tasks determined by the participants themselves. If the proposed Model is

accepted as an approach to systematic program planning, further developments such as the following are needed:

1. Program objectives, stated in behavioral terms, should stimulate performance, conditions, and extent.
2. Based on the program objectives, there should be:
   a. determination of appropriate content area (educational program development, personnel development, school-community relations, management of schools).
   b. placement within the taxonomic hierarchies.
   c. specification of teaching methods, evaluation, and personnel.

Conference participants looked upon this model as a rudimentary beginning—more a "way of thinking about" goal behaviors, teaching-learning techniques, and evaluative procedures than a proposed finished product.

Professors Participating in Conference

**Lloyd W. Ashby, School of Education, Lehigh University, Bethlehem, Pa.
Lester W. Anderson, School of Education, The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor
*Louis Barrilleaux, Center for Teacher Education, Tulane University, New Orleans, La.
Dale L. Bolton, College of Education, University of Washington, Seattle
Daniel J. Burke, School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington
Harold Davis, College of Education, Southern Connecticut State College, New Haven
Gordon Foster, School of Education, University of Miami, Coral Gables, Fl.
William Georgiades, School of Education, University of Southern California, Los Angeles
*Eugene Lamb, School of Education, San Jose State College, San Jose, Ca.
Don O. Lyon, Department of Educational Administration, Ball State University, Muncie, In.
Donald C. Manlove, School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington
*Evelyn B. Martin, School of Education, Florida A & M University, Tallahassee
Lloyd E. McCleary, Graduate School of Education, The University of Utah, Salt Lake City
Kenneth E. McIntyre, College of Education, The University of Texas at Austin
*E. W. Nicholson, Department of Education, Purdue University, Lafayette, In.
*Neal C. Nickerson, Division of Educational Administration, University of Minnesota, St. Paul
**Glen Ovard, Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah
Frank L. Smith, Jr., Teachers College, Columbia University, NY
Alfred P. Wilson, College of Education, New Mexico State University, Las Cruces
*Charles L. Wood, College of Education, The University of Akron, Ohio

Principals Participating in Conference

Roxee Joly, John Bowne High School, Flushing, NY
Loren S. Jones, Leo High School, Grabill, In
Norman G. Olsen, Marshall Middle School, Marshall, Mn

Other Participants

Brother Bartel Brady, NCEA (National Catholic Education Association) Washington, D.C.
Donald Brandewie, Administrative Intern, Arlington County Schools, Virginia
Thomas Johnson, Graduate Student, University of Minnesota, St. Paul
J. Lloyd Trump, NASSP, Washington, D.C., Secretary, PSSAS Committee
Gene Schwilck, Vice President, Danforth Foundation, St. Louis, Mo.

* Present members of the NASSP Committee of PSSAS
** Former PSSAS Committee members

Part B. Some Reactions from the Field

After the materials from the Purdue Conference were summarized and edited, a document similar to Part A was mailed to nearly 600 professors who are members of NASSP. The PSSAS Committee requested them to invite neighboring professors and principals to react to the document—or to write their own. The following paragraphs summarize what 275 persons sent to the NASSP. The purpose is that readers will use this summary along with Part A to stimulate further thinking and action. No one should recommend a national curriculum.

The reactions generally were complimentary to the PSSAS Committee for starting the discussions and to the Purdue participants for generating a vehicle for further analysis. One professor regretted that the participants failed to produce a bibliography, and especially for not quoting Carl Rogers' "A Revolutionary Program for Graduate Education."[1] Some liked the Model as a vehicle to organize discussions, while others objected strenuously to the overuse of educational jargon. Many reacted favorably to the emphasis on behavioral objectives although some did not like the examples. One professor meticulously corrected the punctuation errors. Here are some further reactions to the various sections of Part 1.

Program assumptions, structure and requirements. Many persons doubt that a beginning graduate student could plan and assume responsibility for 80-90 percent of his learning. While

[1] Carl R. Rogers, *Freedom to Learn* (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1969), pp. 189-202.

many agreed that program structure and requirements should stress student-directed learning activities, a definite need exists for a basic background of knowledge, whether gained in formal classroom settings or otherwise. A figure of 40-50 percent for student responsibility would be more realistic.

Favorable comments were made on the following concepts: (1) progress is determined by achievement of competencies rather than time requirements; (2) students determine a major portion of their learning activities; (3) incorporation of professors from other disciplines.

Many reactors expressed concern over the lack of identification of goals, skills, and competencies required of principals and other secondary school administrators. A review of the literature related to job descriptions for school administrators was suggested for inclusion. Further exploration of competencies required by various positions in secondary school administration should be studied.

The proposal needs to be more specific on what is meant by "leadership" in the stated assumptions. Is it realistic to define "the process of educational leadership" for all schools? Leadership for what? The word "accountable" used in the first asumption also provoked considerable comment. Accountable to whom? for what?

Recruitment–Selection. The need for heterogeneity of educational leaders was recognized. However, strong feeling was expressed that all educational leaders must have considerable background in formal education and practical experience in some type of educational endeavor. Many reactors commended the attempts to emphasize leadership performances in the admission and selection of candidates. There was considerable opposition to admitting candidates to administrative preparatory programs from outside the field of education.

Open admissions, as mentioned in the document, were described as unclear and in possible conflict with other statements in the document. The kinds of outcomes suggested seem to mandate a candidate of high quality and potential. What does "relatively open admission" mean?

The Model. While the model identifies a number of components that should be considered by any training institution, many reactors felt that it needed further work conceptually. Processes and behaviors need definition and amplification. The

model is too sketchy and vague; it needs to be operationalized. More examples of personnel are needed. The four content areas require further delineation.

Adapting Behavioral Objectives to the Model. The model should be adapted to behavioral objectives rather than adapting the objectives to the model. Initial, intermediary, and terminal administrator competencies and objectives need to be identified first. The advantages of behavioral objectives were recognized, but total reliance on this type of objective definition was questioned. The document overemphasizes "process" and does not adequately delineate "content" and "outcomes." Also, even though the preparatory program is assumed to be self-pacing, some kind of time-frame should be established.

Strong feeling was expressed that inadequate development of the affective aspects of the preparatory program exists. A viable, practical plan for the development of behavioral objectives in the affective and skill domains must be developed. Several reactors indicated that NASSP and PSSAS might work to establish a bank of behavioral objectives based on this model or its successor.

Placement and Follow-up. The high priority given to placement and follow-up activities was desirable. It was generally recognized that many colleges and universities currently have inadequate programs in these areas and that much more attention and effort are needed. Some doubt was expressed about whether the recommendations presented in this part of the document can be implemented without additional staffing and other kinds of resources.

Summary Impressions. The reactors generally felt that the document represented a commendable beginning to improve the pre-service preparation and continuing development of secondary school administrators. Examples of their statements include: ambitious effort, its existence is its strength; forces a change in professional behavior; progress of students now determined by achievement of competencies rather than time requirements; finally, individualization of instruction; provides an excellent framework; an excellent point of departure for any preparatory program.

Some of their recommendations for improvement were: to include more practitioners as well as several principals already on the committee in future work with the proposal at the

national level; to encourage feedback and input from those directly involved in administrative positions in the implementation of such a program; to make a distinction in the proposal between what is essential in any good administrator preparation program and what is desirable; to include at the beginning an explicit statement of educational philosophy undergirding the proposal; to define precisely the role of the professor in the proposal; to use the terms *strategy* or *design* rather than *model* in describing the proposed program.

This article restates briefly the design of the model developed by PSSAS and outlines in considerable detail the components of the program to prepare secondary school principals in terms of structure, content, personnel, and activity.

Implementing the Model

An Example

THOMAS J. JOHNSON

UNDERSTANDING a model is often aided, and evaluation of its usefulness facilitated, when a specific plan of implementation illustrates it. Implementing a college or university model academic program involves placing professors, students, certification requirements, subject content, institutional considerations, and a host of other diverse components in juxtaposition consistent with the model structure.

As shown in Figure 1 on page 29, the model represents a conceptualization of program development processes for the secondary school principal preparation program.

The vertical dimension height represents the identifiable categories of program development. These must be subdivided into appropriate detail identifying knowledge, skills, and affective dispositions to be developed. The horizontal dimension width represents learning operations into which students will be directed as they are working to meet the criteria. Personnel, materials, activities, and evaluation methods to be used will be identified.

The depth dimension represents degrees of development as the student progresses through the program. A level of development in each skill or knowledge category will be identified as

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"certification level," where the student will be judged qualified to meet role demands of the principalship in that area of preparation. Reaching this level in all identified areas qualifies the person for principal certification.

Categories of Development

The following categories of development in which the principal-in-preparation must exhibit prescribed levels of performance in knowledge and/or expertise to be certified constitute the broad outline of cognitive subject matter, skill development, and affective disposition formation of the program.

1. Develops an understanding of the school as a societal sub-system, with emphasis on:
   a. the school's responsibilities in maintenance and adaptive roles in the larger society.
   b. principles of conceptualizing, planning, implementing, and sustaining organizational change in a bureaucratic, social institution.
   c. principles of leadership in a bureaucratic organizational setting as distinct from and in addition to routine administrative tasks.
   d. the school district as a group of individual, but coordinated and cooperating, units:
      (1) policy-making procedures through administrative recommendation, board of education action, and administrative application of policy.
      (2) coordination of function of individual buildings engaged in successive contacts with students.
2. Gains knowledge of methods and sources of school finance sufficient to:
   a. influence intelligently the acquisition of resources through routine fiscal channels.
   b. supervise responsibly the fiscal operations administrator in his building.
   c. stimulate the acquisition of monies from special sources such as research and experimental grants from private foundations and public agencies.
   d. apply responsibly available monies with full knowledge of effects on the total financial picture of the school.
3. Develops knowledge in laws and regulations pertaining to the functioning of the school, including:
   a. state laws and department of education regulations regarding school operations.
   b. significant landmark decisions of the courts relative to school operations.

c. current trends in decisions of courts involving schools and school related activity.
d. laws relative to behavior of adolescents, and current practices in enforcing them and dealing with offenders.

4. Gains knowledge of goals, strategies, and outcomes of contract negotiations and grievance procedures between school district employees and boards of education sufficient to:
   a. act as advocate for the students' interests in routine negotiations activity.
   b. serve as responsible information resource to the negotiation process.
   c. protect one's own and his group's professional interests as a member of the administrative group negotiating with the board of education.
5. Develops operational expertise in research and evaluation of educational problems sufficient to:
   a. interpret findings of research outside his school and make meaningful use of them in the development of his school's programs.
   b. initiate, supervise, and interpret on-going evaluation of aspects of the instructional effort in his school, and apply findings to expansion, revision, or suspension of programs.
6. Gains up-to-date operational knowledge of instructional techniques and materials:
   a. Background of information to use directly with teachers he is leading:
      (1) knowledge of various modes of learning and appropriate application of each (large group, small group, lab, individualized directed study, self-motivated learning, informal learning, etc.)
      (2) knowledge of techniques and skills to facilitate the organization of staff, building, and resources to provide for use of appropriate modes of instruction.
   b. knowledge of sources from which new strategies for instruction, materials for instruction, and evaluation of strategies and materials can be obtained.
   c. skill in exemplifying use of this information in his own directing of instruction in teachers' in-service education.
7. Develops skill in techniques of communication:
   a. listening and reading for meanings intended by others in communications directed at him.
   b. expressing ideas clearly and efficiently in one-way presentational communications:
      (1) dynamics of audience groups.
      (2) speech techniques and audio-visual methods.
   c. engaging in group discussion with appropriate affective disposition and meaningful cognitive content.

d. engaging in one-to-one conversation with clarity and appropriate affective disposition.

8. Develops ability to initiate and maintain positive human relationships with peers, superiors, and subordinates:
   a. gain familiarity with literature of human relations field.
   b. interpret other persons as resources for learning rather than as objects of conflict or irritation.
   c. interpret behavior of other persons as they interpret it themselves.
   d. see one's own behavior as other persons see it.
   e. identify and cope with one's own defenses.
   f. give and accept feedback and make appropriate adaptations.
   g. gain familiarity with sources of trained professional help in establishing human relations programs for staff.

9. Develops expertise in systematic problem-solving procedures:
   a. identifying and delimiting problems in the school situation.
   b. determining appropriate decision-making personnel in the school organization.
   c. determining sources of data providing input applicable to the problem solution.
   d. considering viable alternative solutions with appropriate personnel.
   e. choosing appropriate alternative.
   f. implementing the decision.
   g. evaluating the results of this implementation.
   h. possible recycling of process with benefit of evaluation of first decision result.

10. Gains knowledge of history and philosophy of education sufficient to:
   a. provide understanding of the historical relationship between society and the public school.
   b. provide understanding of the philosophical stands contributing to historical and contemporary school practices.
   c. provide foundation for development of his own philosophy of education.
   d. sensitize him to philosophical bases for present demands on the schools.

11. Achieves an understanding of the effects on children of the socio-economic milieu in which they live their lives, and a commitment to making the school a medium through which they can maximize their backgrounds and talents:
   a. sociological bases for present demands on schools.
   b. special problems of the poor.
   c. special problems of minority groups.
   d. provisions needed to contact each person in his present physical, mental, and social condition.

12. Gains knowledge in the field of child and adolescent development, and psychology of learning with sufficient breadth and sophistication to:
    a. communicate intelligently with specialists in the field.
    b. use as one basis for the structuring of learning strategies in the instructional program.
    c. assist in understanding, coping with, and—when appropriate—modifying the wide variety of behavior manifested by secondary school students.
    d. provide knowledge base for assisting other administrators and teachers to cope with student learning and behavior problems.

Further Definition of Categories of Development

Division and statement of each of these categories of development in terms of specific cognitive, skill, and affective accomplishments is the next task in program evolution. Insofar as possible, each learning objective will be stated in behavioral terms, including:

1. Identifying and naming of the overall behavioral act.
2. Defining the important conditions under which the behavior is to occur, such as givens or restrictions.
3. Defining the criteria of acceptable performance.

Pretest items, interviewing strategies, and observational techniques of professors are to be used to determine the learning objectives to be accomplished by the student, and those which have already been mastered.

The modules formed by intersection of dimension lines in Figure 1, page 29, represent learning tasks and associated assessment procedures which will guide the student toward certifiable status. Further explication of the paradigm is provided in an example of a program module. Operationally, such modules may take the form of learning packages, learning contracts, or class assignments. The module's format statement requires purposeful, measurable learning activity.

Instructional Module Format

Sections I and II in the format statement place the module on the vertical and depth dimensions of the paradigm, identifying the category of development and situating the specific area of interest behaviorally in the heirarchy of development.

Section III includes statements which detail the horizontal dimension of the paradigm, specifying persons, materials, and methods to be used.

I. *Goal behavior:* The objective stated, where possible, in terms of what the student will actually *do* to demonstrate his competency in the stipulated development category. His inability to demonstrate competency at the stated performance level, either by opting out of preassessment or by failing to perform adequately in pretest, interview, or observation will signal the necessity of his undertaking the task specified in II.

II. *Goal-directed task:* The task to be pursued by the student which will lead to the ability to perform the goal behavior, including conditions or restrictions, under which performance will be expected, and criteria of acceptable performance.

III. *Method:*

- A. Personnel: Persons the student will work with in carrying out the goal-directed task.
- B. Materials: Resource materials, equipment, and supplies the student will use in carrying out the goal-directed task.
- C. Strategy: The nature of the activity in which the student will engage in carrying out the task.
- D. Evaluation:
  1. Instrument: Materials or activities used to assess acceptability of the performance of the task.
  2. Personnel: People who will assess the acceptability of the performance of the task.

Instructional Module: An example

I. *Goal Behavior:*

- A. Category of development: School law
- B. Behavior: In an outline of 250 words or less, report without access to source materials the chronological development of U.S. Supreme Court treatment of the racial segregation of schools issue from 1954 to the present, citing in a short phrase the major point made in each decision.

II. *Goal-directed task:*

- A. Performance: Research with group of 4-6 other students cases heard by the U.S. Supreme Court on the issue of school desegregation since 1954, and hold a small group discussion on the points and trends of these decisions with study group, professor, and attorney familiar with the cases.

B. Criteria of acceptable performance: Take a meaningful part in the discussion, inputting information and analyzing points of cases.

III. *Method:*

A. Personnel: Professor, attorney, student group.
B. Materials: Library resources on Supreme Court cases and enforcement of them.
C. Strategy: Student will research topic directed by professor, then test his knowledge in group of peers and expert resource persons.
D. Evaluation:
1. Instrument: Discussion period; subsequent test outline described as goal behavior.
2. Personnel: Professor and attorney.

Literally hundreds of these instructional modules will be developed as the preparation program for secondary school principals gains flexibility and as necessary components become identifiable in each category of development. The nature of the instructional tasks will differ, and the materials and personnel may be used differently from one institution to another as talents, resources, and organizational patterns will vary. This strategy of program evolvement within the parameters delineated by the 12 categories of development should, however, be applicable to virtually all preparation institutions.

Proposed Institutional Modifications

Implementation of the proposed model will necessitate varying amounts of modification in policy and structure in different principal preparation institutions and state regulatory agencies.

1. *Certification will be competency-based.* Certification will be based on the achieving of behaviorally-measured competencies, and may not be directly congruent with the awarding of an academic degree. While most states now require the Master's degree as a minimum degree for certification, the specification of competencies should be a much more realistic criterion and should replace the degree requirement. The college or university may see fit to make certification and degree requirements congruent, and will be necessary if the state certifying agency insists on the degree requirement.
2. *Pretesting of students will determine entry level.* Upon entry into the program, and at intermediate points in the

pursuing of the program, each student will take prescribed pretests to determine his knowledge and skill levels in each category of development leading to certification. These will represent an important, but not the only, determiner of learning activities to be undertaken by the student. Close contact between students and faculty, and the functioning of students in a number of performance modes will provide opportunity for continuous up-dating of assessment of student progress, and revision of components of the learning program requirements for each student.

3. *Selected learning experience will be based on students' needs.* As the student's needs are ascertained in terms of competencies not yet gained, based on pretesting and interaction with faculty, learning experiences will be prescribed for him which will guide his acquisition of needed information and skill. As the program matures, a bank of contracts, group procedures, work experiences, field internship experiences, and independent study plans will be developed which, with some minor modifications, will streamline this learning program implementation. The key, however, is individualization of prescription with some students beginning at a much higher level of sophistication than others because of higher development at entry and some students progressing at greater speed than others, depending on how profitable each uses learning experiences.
4. *Course structure and professorial role will be oriented to individual progress.* The structure of courses for the preparation of principals in a competency-based program will be fundamentally changed from the traditional fixed-syllabus, lecture-recitation format. Similarly, the role of the professor will be altered, from that of the dispenser of knowledge to that of the director of learning activities.

   Courses will be structured to meet common learning requirements of groups of students who have need of group activity or group interaction to gain their needed competencies.

   When the demand for particular competency-building experiences is repeated at regular intervals, a continuing course may be established, and students' experiences in it will be individualized, so that a given student is only required to perform activities in it in areas where he has

not reached specified competency levels. This form of organization will likely be most used in the transitional period, with custom-tailored competency-building groups coming in a later stage of development.

In either course format, and to an even greater degree in independent study programs through which the student will gain much of his cognitive knowledge, the professor's role will be that of designing learning activities to accommodate the students' abilities and to expedite the learning activities. Much of his interaction with the student will be in individual conferences, group planning sessions, and in providing resource persons and materials in discussion and performance groups. Occasionally lectures will be appropriate when summaries of activities or introduction of new projects for groups of students are needed. Motivational lectures to stimulate the interest of large groups of students will also often be legitimate.

Evaluation of student progress and guiding of the student's learning program to add or delete previously projected learning projects will be an essential part of the professor's task.

5. *Off-campus experience will be an integral part of the preparation program.*

Clinical Experiences. Exposure to various aspects of the total school program should be provided to the student through short-term (one week to one month) clinical experiences in which he will work with practicing administrators or other personnel in real school tasks such as public relations, budget hearings, research of program effectiveness, plant planning, etc. These should be integrated into his program at points appropriate to his cognitive learnings schedule.

Internship. Unless the student has had considerable on-the-job exposure to real administrative tasks in the school setting as an assistant to the principal or other closely associated position (the merits of which would be evaluated by the student and his professor-adviser), he should be required to engage in a full school-year, full-time internship working closely with a practicing secondary school principal. He should share the duties and responsibilities

of the principal rather than be placed in a separately-defined role, and should be particularly involved in developing change strategies within the school organization.

6. *Integration of disciplines is essential to the preparation program.* The secondary school principalship is, more than many professional roles, a discipline which calls for preparation in a number of fields which are, when developed extensively, specializations in themselves. In the categories of development listed as necessary for his preparation, among the specialized fields are psychology, communications, statistics, sociology, and education. If educational administration is to survive as a separate discipline, it must bring into the professorship persons whose interest and expertise combine education and other vitally-related specializations. The specification and development of competencies in the students will be achievable to the degree that the student's program can be controlled and completed within the department of educational administration or through close inter-departmental cooperation.
7. *Assessment of students is continuous.* An integral part of each learning activity will be an assessment of the student's performance in it. Post-testing, then, will not be a matter of receiving two or three "grades" evaluating the effort of an entire quarter, but rather feedback on the degree of achievement realized in each learning project. Success at the requisite acceptable level for the activity will be the gateway to the next learning activity or will be closure for that portion of the total learning program. Failure to perform at an acceptable level will mean branching to a different approach to the same objective or recycling in the same activity. Once required expertise is reached, the student is not reprogrammed to prove himself in it at the same or lower levels of sophistication again.

Summary

A strategy for launching of the proposed preparation program may well be the establishment of a pilot program under a project grant through a public agency or private foundation, with a prescribed series of developmental steps such as: (1) detailing of the categories of development

into behaviors and goal directed tasks leading sequentially to certification levels of sophistication in cooperation with state certifying agencies; (2) recruiting small groups of matched students at various levels of ability and preparation at entry, and preparing the experimental group for the principalship through individualized learnings specified in this project, and the control group through traditional preparation programs; (3) evaluating on-the-job performance of principals after certification, comparing performance of experimental and control groups in leadership of schools into meaningful development; (4) expanding, modifying, or curtailing of experimental programs based on this evaluation.

Since universities and colleges, like the public secondary schools, are themselves complex bureaucratic organizations with all the inhibitions to change characteristic of the public school organization, the task of putting the proposals herein outlined into operation will call for the same range of leadership knowledge and expertise on the part of institutional leaders of these preparation institutions as they will be attempting to instill in the principals they prepare.

The nature of American society today, especially its characteristic of rapid change, militates against a prescriptive, static model for preparing leaders of its organizational sub-structures. Continuous up-dating by individual preparation institutions of their particular goal structures and learning strategies in their preparation programs will continue to be essential, and even the basic categories of development outlined in this model may soon be subject to expansion and modification.

The intent of the authors here is to assist professors of school administration by presenting a planning framework in which the type and level of learning desired can be matched with the most appropriate and effective processes for attaining that learning.

Competency Development and University Methodology

A Model and Proposal

LLOYD E. MCCLEARY
KENNETH E. MCINTYRE

DEVELOPMENT of rational approaches to curriculum design is difficult, especially with issues like content vs. process emphasis, prescriptive vs. discovery (or other type) learner involvement, learner behavioral vs. teacher objectives, and degree of specificity of curricular prescription (from "teacher free" lesson plans to open-ended "resources" units). Major difficulties arise from lack of careful definition of the variables entering into the teaching situation, problems due to intervening variables, and the lack of valid research and evaluation designs.

In spite of these difficulties, however, certain assumptions seem to be well substantiated:

• Learning is effective when the things to be learned are clearly specified; when the learner understands what is to be accomplished and accepts it as reasonable and worthwhile; when the prerequisite knowledge and skills are known and the learner possesses them or can attain them with reasonable effort; and

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when the level of performance of what is to be learned is understood by learner and teacher.

• Teaching is effective when content (technical skills, conceptual understanding, and/or human factors) is identified and inter-related so that the elements needed to achieve a given level of performance are known; when content is ordered into a "continuum" that carries the learner as far as necessary along a sequence of experience (from familiarity to understanding to application); when the content and process are ordered so that each learner can progress along the continuum at his own rate (individualization); and when the methods of instruction (processes) are appropriate to the nature of what is to be learned (content) and to the level of achievement desired.

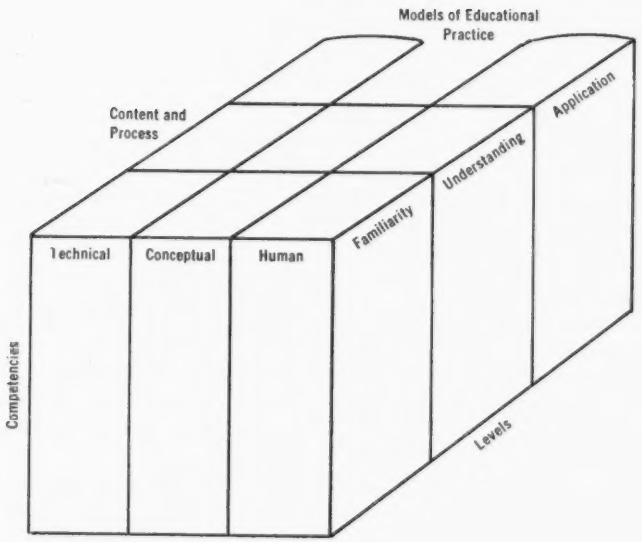
A model designed to take these assumptions into account in order to construct a "Competency Based Curriculum" and to identify appropriate processes at predetermined levels of competence along a learning continuum is shown in Figure 1. The model includes:

1) A competency dimension classified primarily as technical, conceptual, or human.
2) Levels of competence to be attained—familiarity, understanding, or application.
3) Content (subject matter) and processes (methods) to be employed to develop the competency specified.

An example: a competency in instructional supervision is the use of at least one interaction analysis technique to assess teaching effectiveness. The interaction analysis technique selected might be that of Flanders' 10-category rating scheme (content). Competence with this interaction analysis technique requires *technical* skills of rating at a satisfactory level of reliability (approaching .85), memorization of the ten interaction categories, their recognition in a teacher-pupil exchange during the conduct of a lesson, and the preparation and interpretation of a matrix. Competence also requires *conceptual* knowledge of the assumptions underlying the technique, the limitations of the technique, adaptations that can be made of it, etc. Competence also requires human skills the supervisor might need in using this technique with teachers.

In achieving a satisfactory level of competence, supervisors need to become *familiar* with interaction analysis and to learn

FIGURE 1. THE GENERAL MODEL FOR A COMPETENCY BASED CURRICULUM



the ten categories. Each category—technical, conceptual, and human—would have appropriate experiences at the level of familiarity and with appropriate processes (methods) to attain a satisfactory level of familiarity.

At the *understanding* and *application* levels, the same would be true. At the *understanding* level, students might be required to demonstrate ability to rate pupil-teacher verbal exchanges, practice preparing matrices of results, role play use of data collected in teacher-supervisor conferences, and the like. At the *application* level students might go into a classroom and carry out the technique and use it with teachers; they might prepare TV tapes of their own teaching, apply the technique, and write up the results. It should be clear that the model can be used to

specify a curriculum in the three dimensions identified by the model and satisfy the assumptions identified.

Problems and issues in constructing a competency based curriculum are being identified and studied. They range from concern about the activities to be employed to measure learning at the application level to the need to identify "molar" problems and simulate them so that the student can respond in "clinical" fashion to reveal whether or not he would actually select and employ a particular competency.

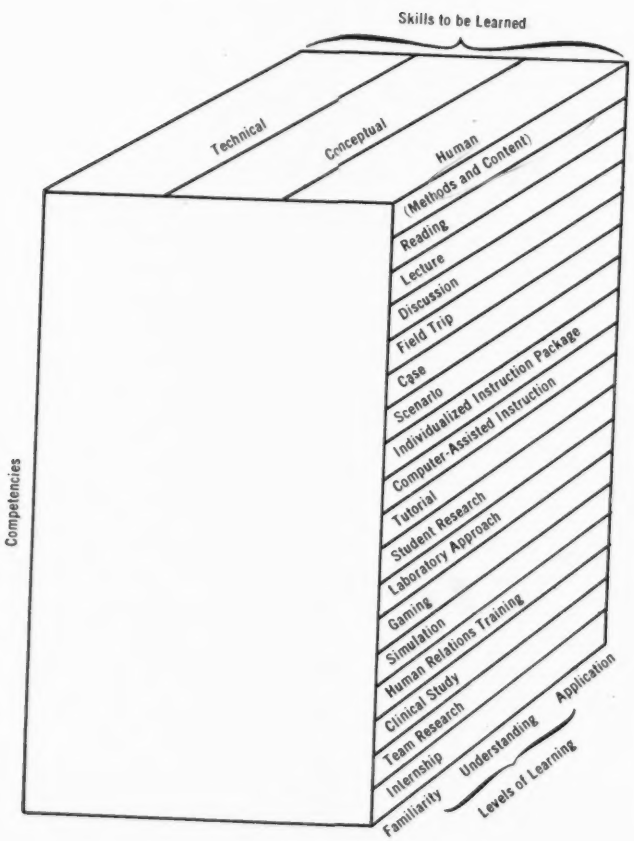
In the application of this model, certain curriculum problems have become clear. The identification of competencies requires that practicing school administrators participate to ensure that the competencies are relevant and properly analyzed. Behavioral objectives and performance standards no longer present difficulties as they assume a logical place in curriculum construction. The measurement of competencies becomes more meaningful and fits naturally into the sequence of instruction. Also, it is becoming apparent that curriculum assessment and revision can become a continuous process rather than a major overhauling of courses and course sequences. It is possible that traditional course structure will simply cease to exist as needed competencies are identified for a given student.

Before we present how instructional methodologies can be tailored to the competency based curriculum model, a review of current methods of instruction and what is known about them is given below. It is necessary, primarily because of the demand for different approaches to teaching.

Methods of Instruction: Their Place in the Model

Seventeen methods that are sufficiently discrete to permit definition and evaluation are shown in Figure 2. Again, competencies need to be identified and specified in terms of their technical, conceptual, and human components. Specific measurable objectives can be stated at the appropriate level of learning desired (familiarity, understanding, and application), along with the content and methods selected for instruction. The authors suggest that the model permits, perhaps for the first time, the "fine tuning" of method to specified learning requirements—a condition notoriously absent in much of higher education where lecture or contrived laboratory methods are frequently the only methods employed regardless of the competency to be developed.

FIGURE 2: METHOD IN THE COMPETENCY BASED MODEL



Although the effectiveness of any method depends on many subtle factors, we can appraise methods appropriate for training school administrators with respect to levels of learning and skills to be acquired, as indicated in Figure 3, page 58.

Figure 3 lists methods in sequential clusters that suggest relative emphases at different times in a trainee's preparation. Reading, lectures, discussions, and field trips, for example, might be more appropriate at the early stages of a student's training,

FIGURE 3

	Levels of Learning			Competencies to be Learned		
	Familiarity	Understanding	Application	Technical	Conceptual	Human
Reading	High	Med.	Low	Low	Med.	Low
Lecture	Med.	Med.	Low	Low	Med.	Low
Discussion	Med.	Med.	Low	Low	Med.	Low
Field Trip	Med.	Low	Low	Low	Med.	Low
Case	Low	High	Low	Low	High	Low
Scenario	Low	High	Low	Low	High	Low
Individualized Instructional Package	Low	High	Low	Low	High	Low
Computer-Assisted Instruction	Low	High	Low	Low	High	Low
Tutorial	Low	Med.	Low	Low	Med.	Low
Student Research	Low	Med.	Low	Low	Med.	Low
Laboratory Approach	Low	High	Med.	Med.	High	Med.
Gaming	Low	High	Med.	Med.	High	Med.
Simulation	Low	High	High	High	High	Med.
Human Relations Training	Low	High	High	High	High	High
Clinical Study	Low	High	High	High	High	Med.
Team Research	Low	High	High	High	Med.	Low
Internship	Low	Med.	High	High	Med.	Med.

High, Medium, Low = Extent to which the method, when competently employed, tends to be practical and effective in learning the designated skills at the levels desired.

when familiarity with a broad array of content is desirable. He might next concentrate on activities that can produce conceptual skills at the understanding level, such as the use of cases, scenarios, individualized instructional packages, CAI programs, tutorial instruction, and student research. After that he could become immersed in job-like activities that tend to be effective in producing conceptual skills at the understanding level, such as laboratory training exercises, gaming, simulation, and human relations training. Finally, his training might culminate in those activities most likely to produce technical skills at the application level, such as clinical studies, team research, and internships.

Obviously, this sequence is a suggestion. Most of the methods that were cited as being most appropriate at the beginning of one's preparation when familiarization is the paramount instructional goal—such as reading, lectures, and discussions—would still be appropriate for certain purposes in later stages of a student's program. The point is that certain kinds of instructional activities *tend* to be more productive at different stages in a program.

The key question for the professor, however, centers on the method or methods that he might best employ in teaching toward a specific objective. Figure 4, page 60, shows the 17 methods, together with brief definitions, summaries concerning research, major strengths and weaknesses, and a general appraisal.

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Figure 4
METHODOLOGIES OF COLLEGE TEACHING*
A PRELIMINARY REVIEW

Method	*Research on Effectiveness*	*Major Strengths*	*Major Weaknesses*	*General Appraisal*
Reading (Individual study by student, using books and similar materials.)	Inconclusive; according to one study, effectiveness lies largely in covering of factual content.	Adaptable to individual needs; economical; gives student freedom to learn as much as he wishes, within limits of the method.	Except in the case of programmed texts, learner has no opportunity to interact with learning material.	If adequate reading materials available, and if guidance provided in selection of materials, can be economical way for individual to acquire information not otherwise available.
Lecture (Discourse by instructor or designate; little or no active participation by students.)	Inconclusive; not many recent studies.	Effective in stimulating interest, explaining difficult ideas, summarizing, or synthesizing; economical.	Little feedback; learner is passive; student reports are often ineffective.	Used too much and too indiscriminately to achieve purposes; illsuited to the method.

* References upon which commentary is based are appended.

Discussion (Informal student-teacher and student-student interaction on topic relevant to administration.)	Inconclusive, partly due to imprecise definition, except that student-centered techniques are found to be superior in almost all studies.	Enables students to learn from each other as well as from instructor; flexible; students are active learners.	Suffers from lack of planning, focus, and purpose.	Can be productive, but must be well planned to yield hoped-for results; undoubtedly used much too indiscriminately.
Field Trip (On-site observation of innovative practices or facilities)	No known studies.	Provides first-hand exposure to different practices; more convincing than less direct experience; permits viewing contextually.	Could be expensive; difficult to get realistic "feel" of situation in a short time; might encourage fadism.	Can add useful elements to a training program, especially as it leads to further discussion and research.
Case (Discussion centered on a written, taped, or filmed description of a complex situation faced by administrator.)	Few evaluative studies; evidence supports its use for appropriate purposes.	Provides interesting and realistic material for wide range of theoretical analyses; cases plentiful, including some on tape and film; economical.	Discussion, not led well, can be fruitless exchange of opinions.	Effective if discussion is expertly led, particularly for developing analytical skills.

Figure 4 *(continued)*

Method	*Research on Effectiveness*	*Major Strengths*	*Major Weaknesses*	*General Appraisal*
Scenario				
(Similar to case, but not as lengthy; open-ended narrative to which other documents may be related; presents context rather than actions taken.)	No known studies.	Realistic; versatile; inexpensive.	Effectiveness depends on skill of instructor; could be simply a sharing of opinions.	Provides realistic context for variety of activities, including role playing and small group problem solving.
Individualized Instructional Packages				
(Self-contained set of appropriate learning materials designed to achieve specific objectives while	Little research; improved student attitudes toward learning seems to be result.	Provides individualization of instruction; utilizes multi-media.	Expensive to produce; materials not plentiful.	Largely untested.

taking into account individual differences in learning styles and rates.)				
Computer-Assisted Instruction				
(Individual interaction with program, making responses at terminal and receiving immediate feedback.)	Little research; one study found that students changed information search procedures markedly via experience with computerized in-basket problem.	Individualized; opportunity to practice decision-making in realistic but "safe" situations; interactions between student and program useful in developing information processing skills; student understands his own behavior under various conditions.	Expensive; programs and hardware not plentiful.	Promising new approach, but considerable developmental work is needed to find best uses for this device.
Tutorial				
(Program of study involving a single student and an instructor.)	No known studies.	Permits highly individualized attention to student needs; tends to build closer relationships between students and faculty.	No provision for students to learn from other students; extremely expensive and time consuming.	As part of a total program of instruction, can make a contribution, although costs would be prohibitive if used extensively.

Figure 4 *(continued)*

Method	*Research on Effectiveness*	*Major Strengths*	*Major Weaknesses*	*General Appraisal*
Student Research (Research conducted by the student, usually culminating in a thesis or dissertation.)	Most active researchers in education earned highest degrees in only 10 universities; most education graduates publish no research in 10 years following receipt of degree.	Ideally, provides means of student's learning by doing, while also contributing to professional knowledge; adaptable to individual needs.	Consumes much student and faculty time.	If production of researchers is a major objective, the method is largely ineffective; can be productive in preparing students for an important responsibility but is ineffective or even dysfunctional for many students.
Laboratory Approach (Learners' behavior in reality simulation produces data, organized and fed back to the group for analysis and interpretation.)	Research limited in educational administration; students consistently rate lab exercises high; one study showed moderate gains in cognitive skills and changes in way principals spend their time.	Accommodates many important principles of learning: active involvement, immediate feedback, face validity, relevance to learners' concerns, interest, and reinforcement.	Exercises difficult to develop; few instructors have skill to make the approach maximally effective.	Conducted competently, lab exercises are exciting and highly valued instructional activities as seen by students.

Gaming				
(Essentially a form of laboratory training with the element of competition added.)	Little research; participants find the experience stimulating and helpful in getting the "feel" of situations with confrontation.	Well regarded by students; reality-based; game theory is more advanced than some others.	Games are in short supply; time consuming as instructional devices; content dates rapidly; expensive.	Few games are available to deal directly with the concerns of school principals, but the method is promising.
Simulation				
(Generic term for use of materials and methods that approach reality as closely as possible, as perceived by learners.)	Very few studies; one series of studies revealed little relationship between behavior on in-baskets and on the job.	Facility-oriented, yet subject to control; permits student to test his behavior in variety of contexts in short period of time, without risk; interesting to students; active involvement in learning.	Materials usually costly and become dated soon; requires skilled instructor; the "reality" of some simulations might be an illusion.	Usually rated highly by students: with an able instructor, can be a useful tool, especially for teaching skills of analysis.
Human Relations Training				
(Term embraces a wide variety of activities and purposes,	Research is plentiful; "human relations training" covers a wide range of practice; studies reveal changes in sensitivity and behavioral	Can affect individuals deeply and profoundly, in contrast with the superficiality of many traditional	Difficulty to gain access to highly competent trainers; without such trainers, the results can be negative,	More than any other method, this one rises or falls on the expertise of the trainer; in the hands of a competent person,

Figure 4 *(continued)*

Method	*Research on Effectiveness*	*Major Strengths*	*Major Weaknesses*	*General Appraisal*
aimed at helping the individual to understand and accept himself and others, and to develop operational skill in interpersonal relations.)	skill, which often persist for a significant period.	methods.	even disastrous.	human relations training can be highly effective; in the hands of a quack, it can be dangerous.
Clinical Study				
(Survey-type investigations for purpose of improving practice in local situations.)	No known research.	Provides opportunity for depth study, analysis, and interpretation of a real situation in the school-and-its-environment complexity.	Heavy requirements of student and faculty time and energy; access to the most useful situations requires healthy relationships between schools and community agencies, groups, and individuals.	Effective for helping students to see problems in all their complexity, and to collect, organize, and report data for evaluative purposes.

Team Research				
(Faculty-student team investigation of problem for purpose of discovering knowledge.)	Evidence indicates that this is the only dependable way of training productive researchers.	Students learn from other members of team; problem usually one of real significance; pressure of time to produce results on schedule.	Student might not be involved in conceptualization stage of project.	Generally effective for training researchers.
Internship				
(Term used here at least one semester of full-time contact with one or more field situations).	Little research; partly due to variety of practices called "internships"; one study found that 6 of 10 interns moved away from attitudes of their administrators, but another found perceptions of 9 of 13 interns moved closer to those of their administrators.	Realistic means of integrating academic learning with demands of the job.	Expensive, both to the intern and to the institutions; often fosters learning wrong things from wrong people.	Usually valued highly by students, professors, and administrators, but investment in time and money in internships is questionable unless conditions are favorable; internships should be aimed at broadening the student's experience—in more than one school and in many community organizations and agencies.

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Standards of performance for administrative interns have not been developed, the author contends, with the result that effective evaluation cannot be made. He proposes performance objectives for such internships to reduce the uncertainty and irrelevance of what an intern learns by doing.

Performance Objectives for Administrative Internships

LOUIS BARRILLEAUX

CONDITIONS demand that preparation programs for high school principals develop the abilities and skills necessary for judicious school leadership. As a result of the current demand for accountability, curriculum designers at all rungs of the learning ladder have concluded that changes in actual behavior are the only valid clue to the success of learning strategies. As the practice of developing behavioral objectives has gained wider use among educators, dangers have become evident.[1,2,3] Some critics claim that performance objectives in many instances are trivial and do not represent the intended achievements; others charge that the approach has a dehumanizing effect on learning.

Nevertheless, behavioral objectives continue to be used on the assumption that determining whether a learning objective has

[1] Myron J. Atkin, "Behavioral Objectives in Curriculum Design," *The Science Teacher*, 35 (May, 1968), p. 27.
[2] Martin Haberman, "Behavioral Objectives: Bandwagon or Breakthrough," *The Journal of Teacher Education*, 19 (Spring, 1968), pp. 91-94.
[3] James B. MacDonald and Bernice J. Wolfson, "A Case Against Behavioral Objectives," *The Elementary School Journal*, 71 (December, 1970), pp. 119-128.

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been achieved is impossible until observable, overt behavior is evidenced by the learner. Furthermore, the practical way of specifying the desired overt behaviors is to express the *objective* in terms of behavior or performance. Although a degree of uncertainty that a given behavior is evidence of achievement of the desired objective, we have learned to be comfortable with much greater gaps in the process of evaluation.

I propose, therefore, the use of performance objectives in the design of administrative internships. Since an internship experience will be as effective as the projected behaviors described for it, trainers are obligated to identify very carefully the overt behaviors that they will accept as evidence that the learner has actually achieved desired goals.

Developing Performance Objectives

This paper includes a set of performance objectives used during the 1969-70 academic year with a group of 29 administrative interns in the school principalship. The program for which these objectives were developed is implemented annually as a cooperative venture between Tulane University and seven participating parish (county) school districts of southeast Louisiana. This set of projected behaviors was developed in group conferences including former interns, current interns, supervising administrators, school officials, and university supervisors. A given objective was not retained until all participants accepted it as stated or in a modified form. With no attention given to ranking, all objectives were, thus, presumed to be of equal importance. Their major thrust is toward orienting interns in the instructional leadership role of the principal. Since they represent the needs and priorities established within a given set of conditions for certain individuals and school systems at a particular time, they should serve only as examples for other internship programs.

Projected Performance Tasks

The objectives for this program of administrative internships are categorized and listed below according to the four key processes: diagnostic, prescriptive, implementive, and evaluative.

After having served one academ
will be able to: ic year, the administrative intern

Diagnostic Process

1. *Distinguish* between fundame
and symptoms of instructiona ental school instructional problems
conditions like excessive stude al problems. (Symptoms are often
absence, and "laziness.") nt and/or teacher hostility, failure,
2. *Identify* a school instructiona
defend it as an authentic ond problem and establish criteria to
3. *Activate* and *work* with at le
each to arrive at a statement ast two groups within his faculty,
ficiency. of a school-wide instructional de-
4. *Distinguish* between skill defici
for at least 50 percent of his fiencies and performance deficiencies
5. *Identify* and describe unique faculty,
of his faculty members. competencies for at least 25 percent
6. *Identify* on the basis of accep
who do not have the potent ted criteria those faculty members
current positions. ial to perform as desired in their
7. *Distinguish* between those duti
and those duties which may be ies that must be performed by him
8. *Identify* neighborhood, city-wid performed by others.
with potential contributions te, and state-wide resource personnel
tional problems. o at least two school-wide instruc-
9. *Describe* his three most disting
distinguishing weaknesses as a ishing strengths and his three most
10. *Poll* a representative group o attendance unit administrator.
determine problems and attitud of a defined school community to
des concerning school issues.

Prescriptive Process

1. *Present* and *describe* at least t
instructional problem or defici wo possible solutions for a school
2. *Activate* at least two groups ency.
oriented instructional decisio within his faculty to reach change-
school-wide data. ns on the basis of an analysis of
3. *Construct* and *oversee* the comp
innovative solution to a schoo lete planning of a minimum of one
minimum of three faculty mem instructional problem involving a
4. *Construct* and *submit* to the sbers.
mendations designed to inc uperintendent at least two recom-
teachers. ease professional growth among
5. *Design* an in-service program w
of at least ten percent of his fac ith "multiplier effects" for a group
6. *Select* at least two other schoo ulty.
applying some innovative solut ds possessing similar problems and
of at least three of his faculty ms; tour these schools with a group
nembers.

7. *Explain* to a school faculty a pre-constructed plan for establishing a school advisory panel representing students, parents, and faculty.
8. *State* legal, economic, socio-cultural, and policy limitations on his administrative behavior.
9. *Distinguish* between authentic limitations and errors of omission in his discretionary behavior.
10. *Distinguish* between decisions that are and those that are not his direct responsibility in reference to both superior and subordinate personnel.
    a. *Allow* teachers to make decisions about students for whom they are accountable—decisions that do not customarily transcend a classroom.
    b. *Restrict* his decisions to those matters that transcend one or more instructional units within the attendance unit.
    c. *Describe* the obligation of superiors to make decisions that transcend one or more attendance units within the district.

Implementive Process

1. *Coordinate* at least one innovative solution to a school instructional problem in which a minimum of three faculty members are involved.
2. *Demonstrate* planning and execution of a program of in-service growth for at least one group within the faculty.
3. *Utilize* faculty members (from at least four subject areas or grade levels) with unique competencies in a manner designed to achieve "multiplier effects."
4. *Distinguish* between the student-oriented posture of the teacher and the teacher-oriented posture of the principal in responses to instructional problems.
5. *Utilize* neighborhood, city-wide, and state-wide resource persons in the execution of at least one specific instructional program.
6. *Extend* authority for at least 75 percent of those administrative tasks that may be performed by others.
7. *Budget* daily blocks of time while establishing instructional improvement priorities and spending at least 75 percent of his time on instructional programs.
8. *Schedule* and *meet* with the school advisory panel at least four times during the academic year.
9. *Disagree* with superiors while maintaining and supporting the integrity of their positions.
10. *Execute* a minimum of two presentations to professional peers and superiors.

Evaluative Process

1. *Evaluate* on the basis of analysis and interpretation of data a minimum of one innovative instructional improvement project.
2. *Conduct* an evaluation of the effectiveness of at least one in-service program.

3. *Compare* the innovations in at least two other schools to the problems and solutions in his school.
4. *Execute* a process of examination and analysis of school-wide testing data involving all faculty members.
5. *Demonstrate* improvement in the design and implementation of the school-wide evaluation program.
6. *Utilize* at least five community lay persons in the evaluation of the school and its programs.
7. *Construct* an outline for an overall school improvement program for the forthcoming academic year.
8. *Demonstrate* at least one pilot effort in the improvement of teacher evaluation and/or reporting practices.
9. *Describe* the three most significant changes in his own style of administrative behavior.
10. *Describe* a minimum of three strengths and three weaknesses in his own administrative internship experience.

Evaluation of Intern Performance

The adequacy of an evaluation depends ultimately upon the clarity and precision of previously stated objectives; and, when objectives are stated as performance tasks, evaluation reduces itself to determining whether the intern can or cannot execute the projected behaviors. Often from learning based on performance objectives, 90 percent of the learners are expected to attain 90 percent of the anticipated outcomes. An acceptable level of attainment, however, must be established for the particular conditions of a specific program.

Using the performance objectives listed above as the basis, evaluation was conducted by three sets of observers: interns themselves, supervising administrators, and university supervisors. University supervisors observed that during the internship year 27 percent of the interns attained 90 percent or more of the behaviors (objectives), supervising administrators observed that 31 percent of the interns attained at least 90 percent of the objectives, and interns (self evaluation) reported that 34 percent of the learners reached the 90 percent level of attainment.

New Problems and Next Steps

Since the rationale for using performance objectives is the production of observable, overt behaviors on the part of the learner, the implementation of this design for an administrative internship depends to some degree upon the competence of the

accountable observers (evaluators). This apparent weakness, however, has the potential to produce a marked, positive "side effect" if it is assumed that the behavior of observers, themselves, is not immune to influence and change.

One difficulty I have experienced in implementing performance objectives is the tendency of the observer (evaluator) to focus primarily on the *intern* rather than on the *internship program;* i.e., the failure of an intern to achieve a particular objective is likely to be blamed on the intern rather than on the program. Although performance objectives contribute to an accurate determination of an individual *intern's progress,* another primary reason for writing objectives in specific behavioral terms is to be able to evaluate the *internship as a program.*

A second, more fundamental, difficulty occurs when the observer (evaluator) tends not to distinguish between the objectives of the internship and those of the organization in which the intern is serving. Actually, a distinction must be made between the internship as a vehicle to maintain the status quo and as a type of training to develop an educational leader capable of improving educational practice. The change-oriented internship is, unfortunately, seldom consistent with the organizational climates in which interns practice, and observers (evaluators) tend to focus on the degree of change or lack of change in the organization rather than in the intern.

A third problem is the tendency for university supervisors' observations to be in somewhat greater agreement with interns' observations (self-evaluation) than with the observations of supervising administrators. The amount of time supervising administrators devote to interaction with university supervisors, or with interns and university supervisors jointly, is typically estimated to be insufficient. This occurs for a variety of reasons—conflicting commitments, attitude toward change, order of priorities, etc.

A fourth difficulty results from interns' attempts to attain a constant set of objectives within a constant amount of time—usually one academic year. A continuous progress approach in which objectives remain constant while the time factor varies needs to be examined. With such an approach the intern's progress would be determined by the achievement of certain behavioral competencies without regard for time limitations.

The purpose of this paper has been to propose performance objectives for administrative internships as a means of reducing the uncertainty and irrelevance of what an intern learns by doing. In addition to the need for refinement and testing of the specific behaviors proposed, a distinction needs to be made between cognitive and affective behavioral outcomes—with much greater emphasis on the extension of the latter. Then there still remains the task of creating learning hierarchies for those behavioral outcomes established as valid. In short, the effectiveness of this or any other administrative internship is directly dependent upon the ability of the *trainers* to identify and attain their own performance objectives—they, themselves, not being immune to uncertainty and irrelevance.

In response to the criticism that preparation programs for principals are bookish and out-of-date, the writer in this article examines simulation as an effective instructional tool.

Simulation: It's the Real Thing

GERALD R. RASMUSSEN
LARRY W. HUGHES

INSTRUCTIONAL programs to prepare and upgrade school administrators are often accused with some reason of being bookish, out of date, impractical and, many times, irrelevant. Researchers and futurists declare that life today is changing so rapidly that traditional methods of lecturing and textbooks are inadequate.

New instructional tools and learning methods such as programmed instruction, mini-courses, team teaching, internships, workshops, seminars, institutes, organized visitations and exchange programs, and simulation are being developed in an attempt to bring flexibility, relevancy, reality, and individuality to programs preparing principals.

Simulation as an instructional tool is unique. It is reality-based. It provides a medium whereby current issues or problems can easily and quickly be introduced. The reality base of simulation, unlike that of internships, can be controlled. In addition, it is common to all and is free from personal and professional threats often inherent in real systems.

The Urban Simulation Project

The original Jefferson, later updated to the Madison, Simulation Materials prepared by the University Council for Educa-

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tional Administration served well as instructional tools for pre-service and in-service preparation programs for school administrators. However, they were based on a suburban community and as such were limited to the types of problems which could be introduced into their setting. At a series of workshops held by the University Council for Educational Administration throughout the United States in 1969, it was agreed that the administration of urban schools was becoming more and more complex and that there were limited materials available which focused on this aspect of school administration. The Council, therefore, decided to launch a five-year project to develop a wide variety of simulation materials focusing on the administration of urban schools.

Known as the Monroe City URB/SIM Project, this set provides a wealth of descriptive data and decision-making exercises about a real, albeit anonymous, urban school system; one of the 20 largest in the nation. The simulation set is a highly useful and provocative vehicle to introduce pre-service administrators to the complexities of urban school administration and it serves equally well as a vehicle for in-service educational programs either in a university or local school system setting. As an in-service tool it provides the participant with the opportunity to step outside his own immediate administrative position and subject the administrative process to a less personal and more analytical view.

The project is being developed along two basic strategies. The first is to develop a series of sub-packets (discreet simulations within the general background simulation of Monroe City) which will allow for a variety of instructional uses and will progress from simulations to help administrators be more effective in the system as it is, to simulations which help administrators move school systems toward more ideal states. The second strategy is to develop "interpretive" and "conceptual" content for all sub-packets, thus introducing more sophisticated instructional possibilities to the materials.

Both of these strategies start with and systematically relate to, careful descriptions of actual conditions affecting urban educational administration in Monroe City. The first strategy involves the creation of future-oriented simulation situations to complement those focusing more on immediate problems and conditions.

The second strategy involves the development of "interpretive" and "conceptual" content to supplement the "descriptive" content presented in simulated situations.

Monroe City

How does one go about simulating an urban school system? Clearly the best data source is a large city which would be amenable to literally "opening its files" and subjecting itself to great inquiry.

This was precisely what occurred with development of the Monroe City materials. The city selected and which subsequently agreed to be "Monroe" is a large urban center with a culturally pluralistic population of 600,000, and with a pupil population making it one of the 20 largest in the nation. It is a demographic and social reflection of "big city America," troubled by a developing blight, out-migration of whites and in-migration of minority groups. The pattern of community decision-making are in a state of flux with negotiations between and among vying groups for influence on and/or control of the several community service sub-systems (including the public schools).

The student is introduced to Monroe City via the media of a 16mm color film, a color film strip, some taped recordings of interviews with representatives of the community, and 14 short background booklets. The film is non-substantive in nature and largely serves to convey a spirit of the city; the frenetic activity, the energy, the blight, the potentials of urban living. The film strip concentrates on the school district. Both were filmed in the real Monroe City. The taped interviews deal with differing perceptions about the educational system and its relation to the city.

Fourteen background booklets describe social, economic, political and intra- and extra-school organizational forces which impinge upon educational decision-making in Monroe. They were prepared by several social scientists and educators who subjected Monroe City to independent empiric inquiry over several months. The use of the background materials varies according to the length and nature of the simulation workshop. In some instances they simply serve as available status data; in others they form the basis for the workshop.

The Janus Junior High School Principalship

A detailed discussion of one sub-packet will familiarize the reader with content, operational procedures, and uses of typical Monroe City URB/SIM materials.

The Janus Junior High School Principalship Simulation is based upon a real junior high school. It is one of the junior high schools in the Monroe City School System. Its attendance area overlaps that of Wilson Senior High School—the school in the senior high simulation sub-packet.

For 10 weeks members of the team developing the simulation virtually lived in the school and its attendance area. Classes were visited, interviews were held, hundreds of colored slides were taken, sounds were recorded, and records were searched. The school and its attendance area was then reproduced on film and tape, and described in written materials. In general, Janus Junior High School represents an actual inner-city urban junior high school with its particular social, economic, political, and human characteristics.

Two presentations, consisting of slides and narrations, provide background material on the Janus attendance area and the school itself. A student handbook gives the schedule, faculty lists, rules and regulations, floor plans, and the like. A "data bank" takes the form of office files with materials on curriculum, staff, students and administration.

The slide presentations, student handbook, and data bank comprise the background orientation and information necessary for familiarity with an operation in the Janus Junior High School Principalship. While they are vital to the simulation and teaching-learning tools unto themselves, the focal point of the instructional content of the simulation consists of a set of stimuli items which are used to elicit participant responses and which, in turn, afford the basis for analysis, interaction, learning and growth. These stimuli items are called decision problems in the simulation.

Unlike the background materials which are based on one urban junior high school, the decision problems were selected from more than 200 problems submitted by urban principals throughout the U.S. Junior high and middle school principals in urban areas from Los Angeles to New York and from Minneapolis to

Atlanta, along with a cross-section group suggested by the National Association of Secondary School Principals, were invited to submit significant problems which they had faced in their jobs during the previous two weeks as well as during the previous semester. In this manner a bank of decision problems was collected which represented a cross-section of the day-by-day on-going problems faced by principals in urban junior high and middle schools.

The simulation experience first involves viewing and discussing the Janus materials. Then the participants assume their common role of "Leslie Bunker," the school principal. Some accumulated correspondence is in In-basket I. A second In-basket has letters, notes and memos that came during a period of the principal's illness.

The value of the simulation lies in the participants' discussion of their written responses to the decision problems. Each participant is placed in the same setting, assumes the same role, and is confronted with the same problems. The sharing of various solutions, alternatives, and the exploration of the consequences of various actions is the heart of a simulation experience.

The decision problems can (1) force the participant to analyze how he orders and plans his work, (2) create opportunities for him to study his reactions when confronted with the frustrations of being unable to complete all of the tasks facing him, (3) encourage him to study his "under pressure" administrative style, (4) enable him to learn more about seeking and utilizing supplemental data in the solution of administrative problems, (5) afford him opportunities to learn about data selection and use in decision making, (6) provide a setting in which each participant can compare and evaluate his responses to problems—his decision making style and results—with colleagues in the same environment, (7) help him understand the values which shape his decisions, (8) provide him vicarious experiences in the simulated inner-city junior high school, (9) confront and sensitize him to the language, conflict, emotion, and social pressures of inner-city schools, (10) help him develop a systematic approach to problem analysis and to problem solving, (11) provide him opportunities to study the consistency of his decisions, (12) encourage him to consider both short- and long-range solutions for problems, (13) afford him opportunities to focus his attention and expertise

on larger problems and issues confronting junior high and middle school administration, and (14) provide him opportunities to develop his skills in purpose setting.

An important feature of the Janus Junior High Principalship Simulation is the degree of flexibility built into the materials. The packet is designed and constructed so that it, with minor adjustments, can fit a variety of time situations and instructional purposes. These instructional purposes can be grouped into two broad areas; pre-service and in-service experiences.

Simulation has been used for pre-service in classes, seminars, workshops and institutes which are designed to prepare persons for administration and supervision positions in junior high schools. These experiences serve as introductory screening courses for students interested in school administration, terminal courses which summarize and survey the student's knowledge and his ability to utilize content knowledge in a "practical" experience, and as a substitute for fieldwork or intern experiences in preparation programs for school administrators.

In-service experiences include all of those described for pre-service but focus on practicing administrators. The sophistication of the discussion and level of presentation and interaction may be higher in in-service but the basic technique and variety of uses are the same as those used for pre-service. Examples of how simulation can be used for in-service include weekend workshops, summer institutes and regular extension courses. Often these experiences are designed to be open to any interested administrator and are widely advertised. A growing use of the technique is to provide a simulation experience for the administrators of one school district and to use the materials to provide a vehicle for the study of problems of that district.

The use of simulation techniques for preparing persons to function in administrative positions provides an opportunity for students of educational leadership to operationalize theory, receive immediate feedback in a group setting about their decision-making practice, and provides a base from which they may analyze individual administrative styles and the effects thereof in a lifelike situation. Thus, it performs a linking function between theory and practice.

After his pre-service preparation for administration, the principal develops his "effective level" behaviors and refines them in his day-to-day experiences. This article attempts to explain how principals can best achieve effective behaviors in their professional development.

A Skill-Strategy Approach To the Principal's Development

EVERETT W. NICHOLSON
NORBERT J. NELSON

To be effective, a principal must define his function and establish priorities. As an important part of his inservice self-development, he must develop behavioral skills as a method for upgrading his administration. It is now widely accepted that administrative skills can be developed and refined.

The basic principle of skillfulness, according to Katz[1] is the ability to put knowledge into effective action. He divides administrative skills into three categories: technical, human, and conceptual. *Technical skills* involve an understanding of things, methods, and procedures and the ability to work with them. *Human skills* relate to one's capacity to understand people and the ability to work with them and evolve them into an effective team. *Conceptual skills* are those concerned with an understanding of the organization as a whole, the ability to recognize interdependence of roles and to perceive significant elements of the climate in appropriate context.

The administrator needs to develop and then constantly refine

[1] R. L. Katz, "Skills of an Effective Administrator," *Harvard Business Review*, January-February, 1955; pp. 33-42.

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his technical, human, and conceptual skills. And he also needs to deploy strategies when these skills are utilized. Strategy implies action in the planning, coordinating, evaluating, and managing activities designed to give direction and justify basic operations of an organization in goal formulation and attainment.

Nelson[2] identified four strategies that can be applied to the three categories of administrative skills. *Control strategy* applies to the management activities that one undertakes to *regulate* the conduct of program, events, and performances through imposing restraint, directing movement, granting authorization, or otherwise overseeing affairs that are part of the organizational function. *Implementive strategy* refers to the direction of one's effort toward doing those things which help *expedite, fulfill,* and *complete* programs, events, and performances that serve to complement and supplement on-going operations in the organization. *Evaluative strategy* involves the *analysis* and *assessment* of activities designed to appraise goals and procedures, rates of progress, distinctions in meanings, and otherwise to ascertain validity of expression and results of experiences in programs, events, and performances. *Developmentive strategy* occurs in the exercise of creative talent and imagination in *generating ideas, formulating propositions,* and *planning approaches* which extend insights, expand possibilities, and abstract relational processes that may result in improved programs, events, and performances.

In order for skill strategies to become effective, the secondary school principal must adequately internalize an idea by basing it on a conceptualization of function and translating it into performance terms.

Summary

New sets of facts and changes in social perceptions are introducing extended and enlarged needs and wants in education. The secondary school principal will need to continue to develop and grow to meet the dimensions of his role. His continuous development must be planned. The skill-strategy domain is a framework on which to build the "effective behaviors," emphasized as fundamental in the preparation program growing out of the NASSP-Purdue Conference Model.

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[2] Norbert J. Nelson, "Pursuit of Management Excellence," An address delivered at the Magnavox Executive Development Program, Fort Wayne, Ind., March, 1969.

America's secondary schools are where the action is, and their administrators are subject to pressure from all directions. The author addresses himself to the nature and context of the intense demand for renewal in educational administration.

Programed Self-Renewal

GENE LAMB

THE qualities of administrators' needs have changed: professional development in school administration has broadened in depth and design; it has now become life-long curriculum process. It is time to redefine the administrative credential concept. Rather than viewing it as a life-time permit allowing one to operate at certain administrative positions, it must now be seen as an initial license that must be continually renewed in order for the professional to stay in practice.

The Dimensions of Self-Renewal

Viewed in the context of organizational development, self-newal is both personal and professional. Renewal is personal in the sense that each administrator must have the opportunity to know himself, to sustain the ability to transcend and extend his personality qualities deep within the persons inside and beyond his organization. Not only must pre-service programs help soon-to-be administrators learn the soft skills related to humanization in administration, but the continuing education program of practicing administrators must include the opportunity for expanding the self.

Self-renewal is professional in the sense that, in order to be effective and efficient, administrators must strive to keep abreast

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ofessional dimensions. TABLE I illus-
components of an eclectic self-renewal

pecial continuing education program
ate College, the Santa Clara County
the regional Association of California
e San Jose program is built around
y seminars held on Thursday and
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d-May. The program carries six hours
lit for those members who may need
he doctorate degree.

TABLE I

A Progra
for Renewal in
n and Process Model
Educational Administration

Areas of Concer
n in the Personal Dimension

1. Maintaining and improvi
   one's mental health
   a. improving cultural awareness.
   b. increasing understandi
      of self—of self in relati
      to others and of self in
      relation to family posit
      and future personal go
   c. developing a more posi
      tive feeling of oneself
      those with whom one h
      to work at a personal
      and professional level.
   d. developing the ability to put pressures of the job out of mind during leisure periods.
2. Maintaining and improving one's physical health
   a. following a physical fitness program.
   b. maintaining a balanced diet.
   c. balancing one's habits in eating, resting, relaxing, vacationing, etc.

TABLE I (*cont'd*)

Processes

1. Reading heavily in the social and political sciences.
2. Reading selectively in the new "environmental social and cultural awareness" areas.
3. "Rapping" in informal small group sessions with inter-ethnic and socially different groups.
4. Structuring role playing and simulation activities.
5. Initiating telephone conferences with leading people in creative areas.
6. Setting up good time-management analysis programs.
7. Establishing forums for personal interaction with key persons in organizational theory, group process, physical fitness, etc.
8. Planning visitations to exemplary instructional programs.
9. Setting aside on a regular basis some time for deep reflection and personal introspection.

*Areas of Concern in the Professional Dimension**

1. Making education more relevant
   a. designing and creating new instructional formats
   b. organizing alternative schooling patterns
   c. building new educational models for the International Megapolis Society of 2000.
2. Applying technology to education
   a. formulating workable PPBES educational programs
   b. applying systems models to administrative decision making
   c. analyzing electronic data processing
   d. developing sound techniques for program evaluation.
3. Dealing with dissent and disruption
   a. developing models for negotiations
   b. studying the elements of power structure and leadership analysis
   c. developing the techniques for facilitating good human relations in the school environment
   d. developing decision-making skills for conflict situations.
4. Developing better inter-program relationships with local colleges and universities
   a. assisting the professional institution to extend its expertise to local schools and staff
   b. assisting institutions in developing their curricular programs to better meet the needs of local school districts.

* Much of the format of this component was taken from the recommendations of the AASA study "The Development and Testing of a Model for a Nationally Based Vehicle Dedicated to the Continuing Professional Growth of School Administrators," directed by Stephen J. Knezenich, April, 1969. Project 8-0215 of the USOE, Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare.

While the essence of the program is designed around the informality of large and small group interaction as well as a spattering of individual study periods, each extern contracts with the coordinating professor from San Jose State to delimit the performance criteria for his individual self-development program. Thus, the renewal outcomes are varied, personal and particularistic to a large degree. Apart from this, all members are asked to read John Gardner's *Self-Renewal,* Peter Drucker's *The Effective Executive,* Harris' *I'm O.K. You're O.K.* and numerous other articles and materials as may be pertinent to their goals and objectives. Careful minutes, taken at each session, become the essential resource for follow-up and reflection as the program matures.

The San Jose experience has been a broadening one for all concerned. The input from the members themselves and the renewed relations with the field administrators have been invaluable and ever important as new curricula programs are being planned. Moreover, externs are now becoming a viable part of the on-going instructional program: they may be invited to teach selected courses; they are integral members of the curriculum planning processes; they sit in on screening sessions; and they are now working hand-in-hand with faculty on solving some of their personal and/or professional problems. Concomitant with this last item is the fact that strong personal relations are being formed between the administrators in the field and the college staff.

In this same vein, the functions and roles of the college are beginning to take on new forms and new directions. In the final analysis, one might say that the institution, through its efforts to assist and design administrative self-renewal for practicing school administrators, is itself experiencing real and appropriate internal and external pressures for change. In essence, it too is renewing itself. And for educational administration in general, this might be the most exciting aspect of all.